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Nursery School Guide

Nursery School Guide



Theory and Practice for Teachers and Parents

BY *Rhoda Kellogg*, SUPERVISOR,
GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS, SAN FRANCISCO

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TO THE
JOYOUS MEMORY
OF GRATIA

Preface

THE PRESENT GUIDE BOOK has been written to help all those interested in nursery school education to understand the aims, principles, and problems involved; and it will be particularly useful to professional teachers and students. It is also meant for parents who wish to know more in detail what we do in our schools.

This is not a book on just the theory of nursery education. It is a guide book of specific information regarding the practical procedures and techniques used in our nursery schools. It describes in detail the buildings, equipment, materials, program, teaching techniques, and methods of discipline used in our schools. It tells how the schools are organized, what records we keep, what kind of relations to the parents we have, what our requirements for staff members are — all in terms of a program oriented to the needs of a public school system.

Most existing schools have untrained staff members and insufficient supervision, and many teachers are floundering for answers to simple questions. This book grew out of an attempt to answer these specific and simple questions for those associated with the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association, and in its original form it was addressed to them. It has also been helpful to teachers in other schools, particularly in California.

Nursery school techniques and methods have been described in several books, but these were based on a ratio of one teacher to four or six children, the ratio characteristic of many American nursery schools before the establishment of the Lanham centers. Today the challenge before us is whether or not a ten to one pupil-teacher ratio can be maintained with good nursery education. I believe it can. The present book was written as an expression of, and as evidence for that affirmative belief.

Since the day, some twenty years ago, when I opened my own nursery school in San Francisco so that my daughter Gratia could receive this type of education, I have believed that nursery school experience should be a privilege of eve[redacted]child. Every day that conviction is

strengthened. Though nursery education is no more expensive than high school education, its cost allegedly is one of the paramount obstacles which prevent its establishment as a fully recognized and permanent part of our free public education system. Can we really better afford the expense of crime, delinquency, and mental breakdown? For there can be no doubt that these could be greatly reduced by a public program for early childhood education beginning at the age of two.

Such a program is not easy to set up nor to operate. It is of far-reaching importance that the public nursery schools now established maintain high standards. To this end, we who teach and supervise must constantly question what we do and why we do it. We will be judged by what we do and not by what we say. That is why this book gives the down-to-earth details of how we actually work. I have given an outline of the principal ideas which have come to guide our program. An attempt to present theoretical justification for all that is involved in our methods would have trebled the size of this book.

Over a period of twenty years, I have studied nursery education, taught nursery school, and supervised groups of nursery schools. I have visited many nursery schools in all parts of America and some in London, Leningrad, Moscow, Berlin, and Paris. My experiences and observations have been largely in schools where trained teachers were working in established ways, and in accordance with accepted theories and practices. In 1943, however, I went to Vallejo, California, where, before the war ended, I supervised eleven Lanham schools with four hundred and fifty children enrolled. Almost the entire staff in these schools had never even seen a nursery school before starting to work in one. The success of our nursery education program in Vallejo brought many inquiring visitors from all over the country, and numerous requests concerning the details of the ways and means used in our system. Not until I had applied many of the Vallejo experiments in another group of schools, did I feel ready to put into writing the conclusions I had reached. Now that many of the methods we developed in Vallejo have been successfully applied in the Golden Gate Kindergarten schools, I am ready to state them in print.

Since 1878 the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association has maintained schools for the education of young children in San Francisco. Until 1926 these schools were operated as kindergartens, and since that date they have been serving the pre-kindergarten child of two, three, or four years of age. During these years, these schools have trained hundreds of teach-

ers in modern methods of pedagogy. Training of student nurses has also been a part of the Association's program.

In 1946, the State of California appropriated three and a half million dollars for the continuation of the Lanham nursery schools, and in 1947, appropriated five million more for another year. A legislative committee was also appointed to study the needs of a permanent program, and this committee recommended the establishment of a permanent program supported by state funds. With the birth rate, the divorce rate, and the housing crisis what they are, it is very likely that a permanent public program will become nationwide during the next decade.

To the teachers in Vallejo and San Francisco whose intelligent and coöperative efforts made it possible to work out the answers to many problems, I am everlastingly grateful. I hope we shall continue together to raise more questions and seek better answers. I am also obligated for much stimulation to many of the students in the classes I taught for the Extension Division of the University of California from 1943 to 1947. To Dr. Joseph Henderson, Miss Roxie Alexander, Mrs. Mary Isham, and Miss Mary Gelling, I owe thanks for long hours of discussion, and for their contributions to solutions of problems which confront the teachers in their struggles with the everyday problems of the nursery school. I am grateful to Dr. Franz Baumann for a reading of Chapter 15. To Walter Marseille, Ph.D., I am indebted for guidance in presenting the psychological interpretations of the children's behavior in the nursery school. Through visits to nursery schools and extensive discussion of their observations, the psychoanalyst and the teacher were able to get together on common ground. To my secretaries, Mrs. Leslye McConnell and Mrs. Margaret Partridge I owe thanks for the intelligent and painstaking work of preparing the manuscript. And finally, my debt to members of the Board of Directors of the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association is great, not only for their staunch support for the writing of the manuscript, but also for the work in the schools which the manuscript describes.

RHODA KELLOGG

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What Is a Nursery School?

THE DISCUSSION of early-childhood training and education is no less clouded by semantic difficulties than any other subject. The home is always spelled with an emotional capital "H," and the school is either an agent of regimentation, or the cornerstone of American democracy, or the unwelcome cause of taxes. We can avoid much confusion if a definition of the term "nursery school" is made in the beginning, so that we know what it is and what it is not.

THE NURSERY SCHOOL DEFINED

We get the best working definition by a process of elimination. First of all, a nursery school is not a day nursery. Neither is it a kindergarten, a research center, a child-care center, or a play school. It is not a parent education class; or a "parking place" for young children. Popular thinking often confuses all these places with nursery schools. On the other hand, nursery-school technicians have their own ideas about when a nursery school is not a nursery school.

A nursery school is not a day nursery because the age range of children cared for in day nurseries goes below and above that of a nursery school, which generally includes the ages from two to six. Day nurseries have always put emphasis on custodial care of children whose mothers had to work. Nursery schools have always emphasized the schooling or educational value of the child's attend-

ing, whatever economic motive may have brought him into the school. Day nurseries were established in America in 1860, and the first bona fide nursery schools in America came after 1915. There are day nurseries which have educational or "nursery school programs" for some of the children they care for; they separate the children in groups according to ages. Others mix all ages in one group and do not try to accomplish more than to keep the children occupied and off the streets.

Kindergartens as we know them today mean public or private educational classes for children over four and one-half years of age and under the age for the first grade, which in some public systems is five and one-half, in others six years. Children sometimes remain in kindergarten until after their sixth birthday, although most systems consider the child of six ready for the first grade; however, much recent evidence indicates that the great majority of all children are not ready to learn to read at six. In a good early-childhood education program for America, five- and six-year-old children would have a kindergarten pre-reading curriculum that is greatly influenced by nursery-school methods as they are now practiced in groups of four-year-olds.

Although three-year-olds sometimes attend private kindergartens, the over-four but under-six ages are usually thought of as kindergarten, and the under-four groups as nursery school. Methods of kindergartens and nursery schools are very different. Thinking back to Froebel, Pestalozzi, Robert Owen, and Rousseau, we see that nursery schools and kindergartens have a common origin. But in more recent times the names of Elizabeth Peabody, Susan Blow, Elizabeth Harrison, and Patty Smith Hill represent kindergarten leaders, while those of Grace Owen, Margaret and Rachel McMillan, and Harriet Johnson stand for nursery education. The title of a position in the United States Office of Education is Specialist in Nursery, Kindergarten, and Primary Education. The difference between nursery school and kindergarten is not clear-cut so far as age level is concerned, since five-year-old children are sometimes found in nursery schools and three-year-olds in kindergartens. In nursery schools children do individual work and play except for the group music and storytelling periods. In kindergartens the activity of the children is almost all in groups — with periods set aside for each activity and all the children participating simultane-

ously in the one activity. In recent years, the better kindergartens have installed programs which resemble that of the nursery school, where centers of interest are set up and children go from one activity to another as they like.

We have said the nursery school is not primarily a research center. That statement is made because many of our well-known nursery schools are found in research centers. The very first nursery schools in America were such centers, a coöperative one at the University of Chicago, another at the Bureau of Educational Experiments in New York. Universities and colleges played a leading part in the establishment of nursery schools, and teacher-training programs were sometimes combined with research in these schools. Beginning in 1933, however, in the W.P.A. schools and later in the Lanham programs, both of which were financed by the Federal Government, the character of nursery schools was changed. Methods used in research centers were modified to meet a situation in which the care and training of the children was of paramount importance rather than the observation of the children by adults who were making certain studies. The research centers usually have small groups of children to observe for morning play, though in some instances they operate full-day nursery schools.

A nursery school is not a child-care center, although some child-care centers maintain nursery schools. We have come to use the term "child-care center" to describe places originally set up by Lanham funds for the care of children in areas where mothers went into war work, and at which they left their children for daytime care and training. Those centers which continued to operate under state or local funds after Lanham funds were withdrawn are still known as child-care centers. The child-care centers keep children between the ages of two and fourteen. A few centers mix all ages more or less in one group for custodial care in a program similar to a day nursery program. Most centers divide the children according to age into two groups – preschool and school age. Some have the school-age group include kindergarten children, others place the kindergarten age with the preschool group. Lanham centers developed one program for the nursery school-age children and another for school-age children, and the latter was known as the "extended day care" program. Thanks to the Federal Works Agency, which administered the program, to the Federal Public Housing Authority,

which was responsible for its building program, and to the various boards of education which sponsored the programs all over the country, new landmarks in nursery education were established in Lanham schools. There are people who are aware of this, yet who for reasons of policy say that the Lanham nursery schools were not true nursery schools because they were open from 7 A.M. to 6 P.M. The fact is, that although the Lanham nursery schools started as war-time custodial centers, in many instances they developed into bona fide nursery schools. In keeping open for an eleven-hour day, they simply imitated the program in which settlement-house nursery schools had pioneered for many years. The Ruggles Street Nursery School in Boston, under the direction of Dr. Abigail Eliot, is an outstanding and influential one of this type. In the February 3, 1945 issue of "Education for Victory," a publication of the U. S. Office of Education, an article states, "In spite of temporary buildings and difficulties in securing trained teachers, the Vallejo schools have maintained a program with high standards. What do we mean by good educational standards? We mean that children are getting care equivalent to that which they would receive in a good peacetime nursery school, including proper rest and nutrition, appropriate indoor and outdoor activities, considerable teacher understanding of normal child behavior, its variations and significances, and opportunities offered for parents to learn."

Nursery schools and "play schools" differ in several ways. Age-level restrictions are not always made in play groups; little if any organization or supervision characterizes play schools; their equipment is not complete or carefully selected—in short, they are informal groups which do not measure up to the standards of a nursery school. Organized play centers for older children are another story.

The public schools of Pasadena have for years conducted morning classes for mothers and preschool children where each mother regularly attends, watches her own child as closely as possible, and makes daily records of everything he says and does. Later she goes over these records with an instructor provided for the mothers, who helps explain her child's behavior to her. A teacher for the children is also present. The women who have developed this program do not wish to have their work called nursery school education, and it is not—it is parent education of a special variety.

Berkeley and other cities have classes in adult education for parents whose children are also enrolled in nursery schools where the parents participate in the teaching. The program is set up under adult education supervision, and is known as a nursery school-parent education program.

Church, lodges, child guidance clinics, children's hospitals, and neighborhood organizations sometimes arrange for group care of little children for a few hours on a given day, and sometimes they call these gatherings nursery schools. Such a misnomer should be discouraged: the children are attending a supervised play group.

The Encyclopedia of Child Guidance has five pages on nursery schools, but no definition. Neither do most of the well-known books on nursery schools. However, a good definition would be: a nursery school is a school whose program and environment are primarily suited to the educational needs of preschool children. Stating this more elaborately, we can say that a nursery school is a place with indoor and outdoor space, which cares for a group of children from two to five years of age for not less than two hours a day, and wherein a supervised program is conducted by teachers who promote educational objectives through the use of well-planned equipment and materials. In many details schools can vary greatly, but these basic conditions must be fulfilled in a nursery school: indoor and outdoor space, age restrictions, frequent regular sessions, definite program, teachers (not custodians), appropriate equipment and materials, and educational objectives.

Thus, the day nursery does not qualify under our definition because its aim is not primarily educational and its age range is too wide. The kindergarten serves a different age group and seldom has appropriate nursery school equipment. The research center may maintain a nursery school, but research is not an essential feature of nursery schools any more than is systematic parent education. There are child-care centers operating nursery schools which meet the requirements of our definition, but obviously, a play group or a "parking place" for children fails to meet most of these requirements.

It is the misfortune of many young children that they belong to homes which cannot give them proper daytime care. These children are left alone or with relatives, neighbors, friends, or in day nurseries, child-care centers, or nursery schools for a very long day.

No one would call this ideal for them; but for the nursery school to refuse to face the fact that some children must have ten hours of daily care away from home is to neglect to work out that part of the program which comes before and after the hours regularly thought of as proper nursery school hours. By our definition, a nursery school can as well operate from 7 A.M to 9 A.M. and from 4 P.M. to 6 P.M., as it can from 9 A.M. to 4 P.M. Since by operating such long hours, the schools save many children from being sent to orphanages and boarding homes, we might as well look at this bright side and organize our program according to actual need. That is what the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association has done for years. Therefore, we say that the nursery school program should be flexible enough to provide children with a two- or a twelve-hour day, depending upon their individual need. The two-hour, four-hour, six-hour and eleven-hour sessions exist in all three Golden Gate Nursery Schools.

Throughout the book we shall deal with program, teachers, equipment, materials, and educational objectives, for these are the fine points of nursery school education. Having defined our subject, we shall not try to state what makes a good, a mediocre, or a poor nursery school until we have presented some of the criteria from which to judge.

Its Development

The first real nursery schools within our definition were established in England in 1909 by Rachel and Margaret McMillan. In 1922, Miss Abigail Eliot, upon return from a six months' study in England with the McMillan sisters and Miss Grace Owen, developed the Ruggles Street Nursery School in Boston. Prior to this, in 1915 the faculty wives of the University of Chicago began a coöperative nursery school; in 1919 the Bureau of Educational Experiments in New York started one, and in 1921 Teachers College of Columbia University opened a nursery school. In 1922 the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit was founded; in 1924 the Iowa State College School opened; a year later Cornell University and Ohio State opened schools and Franklin Public School nursery in Chicago was started. The Yale Psycho-Clinic Guidance Nursery opened in 1926. In the same year Vassar College, Smith College, and Antioch College started nursery schools; in 1927 the one at

Mills College was opened. In 1927 the writer opened a private nursery school in San Francisco for thirty children known as the Pacific Heights Nursery School.

In its kindergartens, the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association has taken children as young as two years of age ever since 1878. But not until 1926 were the kindergartens replaced by regular nursery schools for younger children only. (At no time has the Association operated a day nursery program taking older children.) The schools it now conducts are suitable for children both of working mothers and of mothers who do not have to work. The aim is not only to provide education for approximately one hundred and sixty children, but also to try out modern nursery school methods in anticipation of the day when the public school will have a program of nursery education which includes all types of nursery schools. By that we mean primarily schools for the children; but we think also of schools for parent education, for teacher training, for young people to study child development, for research, for children with special handicaps or problems, for any other related purpose which may develop in the future, and for any combination of these purposes which may seem desirable.

Before 1920 there were practically no nursery schools in the United States; by 1936, 285 nursery schools were in operation, 77 in colleges, 53 in philanthropic institutions, 144 as private schools, and 11 in public schools. Today there are many more in public schools than in colleges, but college schools have been outstanding in influence. Today's number of schools is hard to estimate because many schools were forced to close for lack of Lanham funds and at the same time new ones are opening up under other auspices. Apart from the college schools, the research centers, and the private schools there was little other nursery education in this country until 1933–34, when the W.P.A. schools were started. When they were liquidated in 1943, 50,000 children were turned out of 1500 schools. In November, 1942, the Lanham Schools were organized. These were liquidated by the Federal Government on February 28, 1946. At the peak of employment in May, 1945, 15,310 children were enrolled in 369 nursery schools in California alone. The enrollment in August, 1947, for the country as a whole was 58,560 children under six years of age.

Its Aim and Function

The educational objectives of a nursery school vary according to the aspects of child behavior that are emphasized. Some programs stress physical, some emotional development. A good school looks after the whole of the child's needs. As we take up the various aspects of the nursery school life, we will discuss in detail what we consider desirable for the child. Our over-all goal, however, we can put briefly: it is to provide an environment in which the children thrive. This means that they are protected against disease and infection, and that they have plenty of good food, proper rest, and happy play. It means they learn good habits, develop desirable personality traits, and are allowed to live and let live. How difficult it is for society to achieve such seemingly simple aims for all our children, is shown by the high incidence of epidemics, malnutrition, behavior problems, and early manifestations of delinquency.

The means by which the nursery school attains its objectives involves more than housing and equipment designed for children, program and activities suited to their interests, and supervision by adults skilled and interested in handling all aspects of child behavior. It involves, above all, a philosophy of the relationship of nursery education to life as a whole in a democratic society.

This book attempts to give detailed information about the concrete ways in which our nursery schools try to achieve their aims. Its philosophy is inherent in all the details and is only occasionally stated in explicit terms, for its emphasis is on the specific and concrete things that teachers need to know. A good nursery school must be viewed not only in terms of its concrete aspects, such as are outlined in the appendix on Standards, but it must also be judged in terms of what it means to the child.

What the nursery school means to the child depends upon his needs and how well the school provides for them. Basically all children need the same things, but in different and individual amounts. They need individual acceptance and respect from adults so that they develop respect for themselves and for others; they need affection and approval, which make them willing to pay attention to the wishes of others; they need consistent, friendly discipline which encourages them to learn the right ways of doing

things; and they need to live a life of overt expression that is really suitable for a child, so that they can grow at their own individual rates from one year to the next without fear, protest, and too much desire for the satisfactions of earlier childhood.

A good nursery school has only teachers who respect children and enjoy their society, teachers who are naturally affectionate but not as intimate as parents are bound to be because of the intense emotional relationship between parents and children. A good school has teachers so accustomed to children's good and bad behavior that they have a perspective which enables them to know how much and how little to expect from each child – teachers who have learned to act toward the children so that they react well toward others and thus "learn to behave." Parents learn how to bring out the best behavior in their own few children at the expense of extensive and detrimental experimentation with them, whereas teachers have learned to understand and to handle all kinds of children. Most children can more readily learn to do the right thing when other children of their own age are participating in that learning, and when the adult supervising them knows what is reasonable to expect.

To be respected, loved, wisely guided and controlled is rarely the lot of a child in these disturbed times. Divorce, desertion, drunkenness, insanity, illness, unemployment, bad housing, and many other influences make home life very difficult for most of the children in our schools. And even many children from "good homes" nowadays suffer from parental oversolicitude, loneliness, neurotic relatives, and other disturbing influences beyond the control of anyone. The nursery school provides a world where the child can live out his life in terms of certain inalienable needs, if not rights; where compensating and constructive influences are brought to bear upon his developing personality, which even the best home and the best parents may warp, for no two parents were ever endowed with unlimited insight.

If for some learning purposes the nursery school teacher functions better than the parent, it is because she subordinates her adult needs to those of the children while she is in school. All adults in the school must so subordinate their needs because the school exists for the children. At home the adults cannot possibly do this. That is why nursery schools are the home's natural ally. The child's

longing for a place where he can be himself in terms of his age-level needs can hardly be satisfied in the home of today. Homes usually do not provide a safe place to run, climb, shout, sing, dig, build, and play with "lots of other kids" as much and as long as one likes – yet these are the legitimate desires of children. Few homes understand the need young children have to cry, wet their pants, suck their thumbs, feel all parts of their bodies, and get dirty. And where are the homes that have clay, easel paints, finger paints, playhouses, collage, and blocks for expressing those little understood but all-important creative urges that must come out? Where do children in homes gather for music, stories, rhythms, a social lunch situation, and the hour of nap, when going to sleep at the same time as others is a pleasure and not a punishment?

A nursery school is truly a school in the best sense of the word, for the children receive instruction, but not in the academic subject matter or the three R's, which comes properly after age six. What they learn is to handle their bodies in terms of running, climbing, jumping, bouncing, and riding wheel toys; how to eat many kinds of food with enjoyment; how to relax and to sleep at regular intervals; and how to play with other children with enjoyment rather than friction. What they are taught depends upon the school, but in a good nursery school they will be taught how to overcome those obstacles that can be overcome; how to handle their own selfishness and how to meet that of other children so that they become neither too self-willed or too feeble to stand up for their own rights. Children in nursery school are, above all, experiencing their entrance into the larger world away from home in a protected, suitable environment. The school environment gives them the right amount of buffs and rebuffs to make them able to take it and thus to learn that the world at large can be a favorable, hospitable one. The child who learns this lesson very young is protected if any sudden thrust into a hostile world away from home should befall him. For this reason the nursery school must be right in every way. Then the child from a good home learns that the larger world is also good. The child from the bad home learns that the larger world is different and better, and the earlier he knows this the better. Therefore, the nursery school needs to be set up to take very young children and to teach them that life in the wide world can be satisfying.

Selected Reading

Blatz, W. E., Dorothy Millichamp, and Margaret Fletcher, *Nursery Education: Theory and Practice.* New York, William Morrow, 1935.

Foster, Josephine C., and Marion Louise Mattson, *Nursery School Procedure.* New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, 1930.

Landreth, Catherine, *Education of the Young Child.* New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1942.

Upedgraff, Ruth, and others, *Practice in Pre-School Education.* New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938.

These four books are texts currently used in nursery education. All were written before the Lanham schools were developed; they are all based on experiences of college research nursery schools; therefore, they do not deal directly with many problems of the present-day child-care center nursery school. While all four books discuss the intellectual learnings of children in nursery school, the psychological explanations for behavior of the children is "behavioristic" rather than "dynamic."

Alschuler, Rose H., *Children's Centers: A Guide for Those Who Care for and About Young Children.* New York, William Morrow, 1942.

This book was issued during the war as a guide to help in establishing the Lanham schools. It deals with school-age problems as well as nursery schools, and all subjects are treated briefly because of the scope of the subject matter. Much that is recommended should be looked upon as applicable only to the wartime emergency and not to a permanent peacetime program. The book's psychological approach is founded on behaviorism rather than dynamic psychology, but pervading throughout is a hope that teachers will have an enlightened attitude toward children for which the book pleads without teaching how to bring it about. The book is historically significant because Lanham schools used the book as a guide.

Fediaevsky, Vera, and Patty Smith Hill, *Nursery Education and Parent Education in Soviet Russia.* New York, E. P. Dutton and Company, 1936.

This book will not give the reader any ideas she could apply in her practice. It reveals an elementary stage of thinking

about care of children at home and in school. The Russian nursery school system is struggling for minimum basic physical and health standards and is unlike the American schools which place emphasis on educational problems.

Froebel, Friederick, *Education of Man.* New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1911.

If the reader will make allowances for the extreme religiosity of Froebel, she will be amazed to see how "modern" Froebel is; how deep his insight into child psychology, "The child, the boy, the man, indeed, should know no other endeavor but to be at every stage of development wholly what this stage calls for." This is the essence of progressive education. "The whole later life of man . . . has its source in the period of childhood." Psychoanalysis by intuition! This founder of the kindergarten and the nursery school knew and loved children.

Haxton, Jennie, and Edith Wilcox, *Step by Step in the Nursery School.* New York, Odyssey Press, Inc., 1936.

A little book that briefly gives sound general statements of nursery school aims and methods. It has a progressive point of view regarding discipline.

Johnson, Harriet, *A Nursery School Experiment.* New York, Bureau of Educational Experiments, 1924.

An account of the first efforts to make the nursery school environment educationally significant. The material is repeated in *Children in the Nursery School.* Because the author made such notable contributions to nursery education in this country through her work at the Bureau of Educational Experiments, her books are important.

Lissa, Lillian de, *Life in the Nursery School.* London, Longmans, Green and Company, 1939.

A detailed account of aims and methods in modern English nursery schools. Readable, and emphasizes the need for good attitudes toward the children.

McMillan, Margaret, *The Nursery School.* New York, E. P. Dutton and Company, 1921.

This book does not make very interesting reading, but the nursery school teacher should at least know what is in it because the McMillan sisters started the modern nursery school movement in London.

Montessori, Maria, *The Montessori Method.* Philadelphia, Frederick A. Stokes, 1912.

A great Italian woman educator has stated the case very well for education that is child-centered. Especially the chapter on Discipline should not be missed.

Neterer, Elizabeth, and Lovisa C. Wagoner, *What Is a Nursery School?* Washington, D.C., Association for Childhood Education, 1940.

A readable pamphlet, but with distorted emphasis on certain factual detail. Cupboards, for instance, are made very important by a whole page of illustration.

Owen, Grace (ed.), *Nursery School Education.* New York, E. P. Dutton and Company, 1923.

Miss Owen is another English pioneer; her ideas were sound, and they still command respect today. The chapters on the child's mind by Olive Wheeler are excellent.

Peabody, Elizabeth P., *Lectures in the Training Schools.* Boston, D. C. Heath and Company, 1886.

Peabody, Harrison, and Blow were important women who developed the early kindergarten according to Froebelian ideas. They were highbrow, emotional, and deeply religious, however, and one gets no visual image of the actual kindergarten from reading these leading educators.

2

Housing

AN OLD BREWERY, a vacant loft, a damp church basement, a railroad flat, a decayed mansion, or a summer cottage can be made into a nursery school. At least, they have been. We will not say how good a school, but still they are bona fide nursery schools within the terms of our definition. Several famous schools are in buildings that are depressing and inadequate, while many unknown ones are in delightful, appropriate buildings. Plain living and high thinking characterize some centers which could well do with a little more high living and plain thinking. Many of the Lanham schools operated under the idea that what was right for the children should be done and the necessary costs met. To those who worked in schools which for years did the best they could for children on totally inadequate budgets, the Lanham schools seemed extravagant — from a dog-in-the-manger point of view. Actually they were not; their appearance of affluence was often due to their being housed in new buildings built for nursery schools instead of for garages, saloons, or gymnasiums. In California more than a hundred such buildings were put up during the war. However, more than two hundred schools existed in makeshift buildings, and some of the makeshifts were pretty rugged.

THE IDEAL NURSERY SCHOOL

A nursery school building ought to be close to the ground, with direct access from the playroom to the toilet, and to the outdoor

play area. If there is reasonable indoor and outdoor space, all other problems can be solved when the playroom-toilet-playground arrangement is satisfactory. But the majority of nursery schools in the United States do not have direct access from the toilet to the playground as well as to the playroom. Although architects and those responsible for planning the nursery school building should know that two-year-old children have to get to the toilet often, they seem to be oblivious of it. Only two of the Golden Gate schools have this feature, which more than any other architectural arrangement affects the pupil-teacher ratio possible in a given set-up. The big Maritime Nursery School in Richmond has the toilets on the opposite wall from that leading to the play-yard. The nursery school buildings erected by the Federal Public Housing Authority are good in this respect, and so are most of the buildings built with Federal Works Agency funds in California.

Satisfactory toilet arrangement is number one on a list of desirable building features. The next in importance is proper and adequate space for the number of children called for by the overhead of operation — in other words, at least 30 children. Thirty, because less than that number does not justify hiring a cook and a housekeeper.

Space Requirements

What do we mean by proper space for 30 children? The National Association for Nursery Education and various other standard-setting groups have tried to fix the space in terms of minimum square feet, such as 35 square feet per child for indoors, 200 for outside. In the Appendix, page 458, minimum and recommended areas are given. An old survey made in 1930 of a large number of schools reports that 12 square feet per child was the average indoor space provided. This, then, would mean that a room 18 by 20 feet could house 30 children, which is obviously impossible for a good nursery school program. The F.P.H.A. building rooms are designed for 30 children each and are approximately 24 feet by 48 feet, which for 30 children is 38 square feet per child. And when 30 children are in them, they are jamb full.

Space needs must be arrived at in terms of arrangement and use of rooms. First of all, the space should not be too big, as it is in a school gymnasium or auditorium. No homelike or practical

placing of equipment can be made in such a vast place, which only suggests running and vigorous noisy play to the children. A room is big enough for 30 children when you can get in all the necessary equipment and have good space for children to play without blocking up the doors and windows with lockers and cupboards. Necessary equipment includes three tables 3 feet by 6 feet; 30 chairs with space to walk around them; 30 lockers; a doll corner; cupboards for equipment and blocks; and 30 beds. The furniture should not have to be moved in order to put the beds down. The three tables will take care of the activities and the feeding of 30 children. Block building can take place in the space where beds go down at nap time; lockers can go along any empty wall space, as can the cupboards, which, if low enough, may also go under windows. A doll corner should be reasonable in size and placed against a solid wall, not next to windows or screened off out in the middle of the room, so that it has to be moved about.

For practical operation, every nursery school should have at least two rooms with no more than 30 children enrolled in any one room. With more than 30 children, the group gets too noisy and stimulating, no matter how well controlled the children are, while a school which accommodates fewer than 60 is more expensive per capita to operate. Thirty enrolled in a room usually means an average daily attendance of 25 or less. Thirty children should be present in one room only when the age spread is restricted to about 18 months, and no room for two-year-olds should have more than 25 enrolled children.

A playroom, a yard, and a toilet will give a basic nursery school; but without a kitchen, an isolation room, storage space, an office, and a janitor's closet, a full day's program cannot properly be carried out. A small kitchen with an ordinary household stove and refrigerator will suffice for 60 children, since only one meal a day is prepared. Plates, dessert dishes, and glasses are the dishes chiefly used; no baking need be done, so kitchen utensils need not be numerous. It is good to have light and air in the kitchen, as it is in all the rooms, but a good double sink is more important. Large table space is an asset, too. A big, badly arranged kitchen is unfortunate, but less so than in a home where three meals a day are prepared. A kitchen should be at least big enough to permit the cook and the housekeeper to sit down to eat their lunch.

An isolation room is usually required by the regulations of the local board of health. It should be designed to isolate the germs, but not the child suspected of having them. In other words, while it should be sealed off from all other rooms, it should be glassed, so that the child can be where he can see out into an office or a playroom and where he can be observed without the necessity of somebody's going into the room. It should also have its own toilet. Venetian blinds on the windows looking into the isolation room, controlled from the playroom side, can shut it from view when not in use. The number of isolation beds needed depends on the enrollment; one for each twenty-five children is plenty if the morning health inspection is really good.

Most nursery schools look untidy because there is seldom enough proper storage space. Places should be provided for storage of food, household and school supplies, indoor and outdoor toys, broken toys, special toys, mops and brooms, gardening tools, clean and dirty laundry, wet pants, teachers' coats, medicines, books, phonograph records, paintings and products of the children's handiwork — all of which take space, shelves, and closet doors. Storage space should be arranged where needed, both indoors and outdoors.

An office is a necessary spot. There teachers can have conferences with each other and with parents, and records can be made and kept. A teacher's desk in the playroom is an undesirable feature.

A janitor's closet and sink keeps the floor mop out of the kitchen sink, and is, therefore, a desirable feature if not an essential one. An entrance hall or other room for morning inspection is essential.

Almost any nursery school teacher would say that a school which had all the above features was workable, but two other things are also needed — one is a rest room for the teachers, and the other is the right to paint the building in attractive colors. Nothing, except having the toilet adjacent to the playroom and the yard, makes teachers feel better than a room to which the teacher can go for a moment of relaxation. Working with the children becomes an unendurable strain unless the teachers are relieved at reasonable intervals; going to the toilet is not enough for that. Most good nursery school teachers, and all poor ones, seem to need some moments alone. A teachers' room should, of course, have a couch to stretch out on. (It can be made of orange crates and a mattress.)

A teachers' room can even be made of a large supply closet if there is no other place, for the most important thing it should afford is privacy.

Desirable Features

No matter how spacious or well-arranged a school is, if its walls are drab colored and the woodwork school-room oak, or if war-time painting gives it the appearance of having been dipped in a cream colored paint bucket, working in such a place is dreary. When the school is tastefully painted in beautiful colors, everyone's morale improves.

What more should a good nursery school building have? Plenty. A roof that doesn't leak and gutters; screens on at least some of the windows and the doors; lights and floor plugs in all the rooms; washable walls and woodwork; linoleum on the floors; windows and doors that all shut and lock; a yard that drains off the rain, is surfaced for wheel toy use, and is free from mud and dust; a sidewalk to the front door from the street; a reasonable means of heating the building; a low toilet and wash basin for every ten children (with no partitions between the toilets and no nursery chairs); a sump in the toilets; a hot water system that works; a good fence; good artificial lighting; no ells in playrooms; enough windows, all fitted with dark shades (preferably venetian blinds); a few trees (one tree will do) or some other shade; a covered runway or porch; wall space for bulletin boards; *no built-in cupboards or lockers in playrooms*; a high deep sink in which to wash a soiled child; a place, other than the toilet bowl or wash basin, to wash and dry soiled pants; a sink in a closet for washing paint jars, mixing clay, and coloring finger paints; and, when the millenium comes, a space for isolated individual play; ultra-violet ray irradiation; a sound-proofed ceiling; and a hot water system for the children which doesn't scald their hands, and one for the kitchen which does scald the dishes; a parents' room; and possibly a room for screened observation. No doubt a lot of things have been omitted here which will be included in nursery schools of the future. If some things mentioned seem too obvious, let me disillusion you by telling you how many schools are today without even the most obvious conveniences.

No doubt you are wondering why a separate sleep-room is not

added to this list. It has been demonstrated that a good program for children does not require a separate sleep-room. Building, maintaining, and heating a room to be used only two hours a day is wasteful, and it is prohibitive in urban situations where nursery schools are so badly needed. Foster and Mattson [1] and others say that the lack of a sleep-room is hard on teachers and children, but wartime experience has proved that this need not be so. If housekeepers are assigned to the job of setting up and putting away the beds, and no sheets or mattresses are used, use of the playroom for a sleep-room is no hardship for anyone. Cots placed behind closed doors when not in use are obviously not unsightly.

Present-Day Nursery Schools

Though a number of good nursery schools have been built, perhaps the ideal nursery school building does not yet exist. During the war considerable building was done all over the country, particularly in California, where more than a hundred nursery schools were erected by F.W.A. and F.P.H.A. The F.P.H.A. buildings have many excellent features, and two schools built by F.W.A. in Vallejo are quite good, although wartime building restrictions were responsible for some disappointments. Nursery school technicians' lack of experience in schools for large numbers of children accounted for their inability to advise architects wisely, and resulted in such unfortunate structures as the school built by the Maritime Commission in Richmond and those built by Kaiser in Portland. The Maritime school's sleeping room for eighty children was condemned by the Fire Marshal. The Kaiser nursery schools have several glaring defects: the play space is inadequate; food from the kitchen must be taken outdoors and indoors five times before it reaches all the playrooms; lockers and cupboards are fixed, with no wall space for doll corners; closet and laundry space is inadequate; kitchen facilities are overdone; and the rooms are monotonous in design and decoration.

Nursery schools do not need "expensive" buildings, but they do need ground space, which in cities is costly. However, since schools are usually most needed in blighted areas and in housing projects where the land costs are not great, the ground cost need

[1] Foster, J. C., and Mattson, M. L., *Nursery School Procedure.* New York, Appleton. 1930.

not be prohibitive. In California, satisfactory buildings can be made of plywood or plasterboard for walls and ceilings. It has been stated that an all-outdoor nursery school would be ideal, but I cannot agree with this. Children need enclosures for protection from air and sun. The buildings should not be made too durable, because new ideas need new housing after something like twenty years. Indestructible bad school buildings are one of the curses of American education.

Selected Reading

Alschuler, Rose H., *Children's Centers: A Guide for Those Who Care for and About Young Children.* New York, William Morrow, 1942.

See *Bibliography of Nursery School Education* published by the National Association for Nursery Education, 1947, Iowa City, Iowa.

3

Equipment

By our definition, a nursery school must have certain basic equipment. Besides the minimum essentials, there are many other desirable pieces. Tables, chairs, cots, lockers, cupboards, and easels are the essential items for inside. Piano, phonograph, and screens, cot dolly, and food guerney, or cart, are the desirable. All other useful inside articles we call materials rather than equipment. The brevity of this list shows how simple it should be to equip a nursery school. Actually it is not easy because little nursery school furniture has ever been manufactured and most of what is available is not too desirable. During the war, many Lanham schools were equipped with complete sets of furniture secured through the Federal Public Housing Authority. Unfortunately, this equipment was not very satisfactory; and it does not lend itself to suitable alteration. Because a smooth-running nursery school is a difficult achievement even when building and equipment are correct, these are of utmost importance.

Chairs and Tables

A chair that is two inches too high for a child might as well be six inches too high so far as posture is concerned. Comfortable chairs and tables are worth their weight in gold, not only at lunch time, but at all times when children work at the tables. Although nursery school texts usually carry pictures which show two to four children eating at a table with a teacher, current and future demands for nursery schools mean that one teacher often must supervise as many as ten children at lunch time. In Vallejo we

found that this could best be done at a table, 36 inches by 72 inches, which can comfortably accommodate the teacher and ten children. This table, which is much larger than those heretofore used in nursery schools, also seats eight children very well for any handwork. It takes less floor space than three small tables, which, if put together, will accommodate at the most only seven children, whose legs are always bumping the many table legs. When tables are grouped together, they come apart and things fall through the cracks.

It is easy to make this large table by putting a strip one inch by three inches around the under edge of a piece of plywood ⅜ inch by 36 inches by 72 inches, and fastening this to one or two small tables. This design greatly recesses the legs, and there is no apron; therefore, the table can be cut low enough for the children to get their knees under when they are sitting on chairs low enough for comfort.

Table heights must be correct in relation to chairs, which should be cut for children of varying sizes. These 36 inch by 72 inch tables have been made for our schools in different heights of 15, 16, 18, and 20 inches. Many tables now in use have been made only in heights of 18 and 20 inches, so that none of them is suitable for the youngest children. Even if their legs are shortened, the table apron is not sufficiently recessed to permit cutting the tables low enough for a 7-inch chair.

It seems impossible to purchase chairs low enough for the two-year-old children. Practically the only way to have them is to shorten the legs of existing chairs. This can be done with Mexican chairs without destroying proportions. It can also be done with the Mosher chair without disfiguring the proportions too greatly, and with some other chairs of good design. Potomac chairs are too wide and too deep in the seat for the two- and three-year-old children, and to cut them off to the height of 7 or 8 inches is to remove the rungs and destroy the appearance of the chair.

It is a very simple matter to measure the size of chairs that a child should sit in. When he sits as far back as he can in the chair, his feet should be on the floor and his knees should be sloping upwards to such a degree that it is possible for an adult to place his hand in the space between the front edge of the chair and the under part of the child's legs. Whenever the legs just above the knee are resting on the front of the chair, the circulation to the



Robert Overstreet

"He took my block."

A paradise for children in the heart of a city slum.

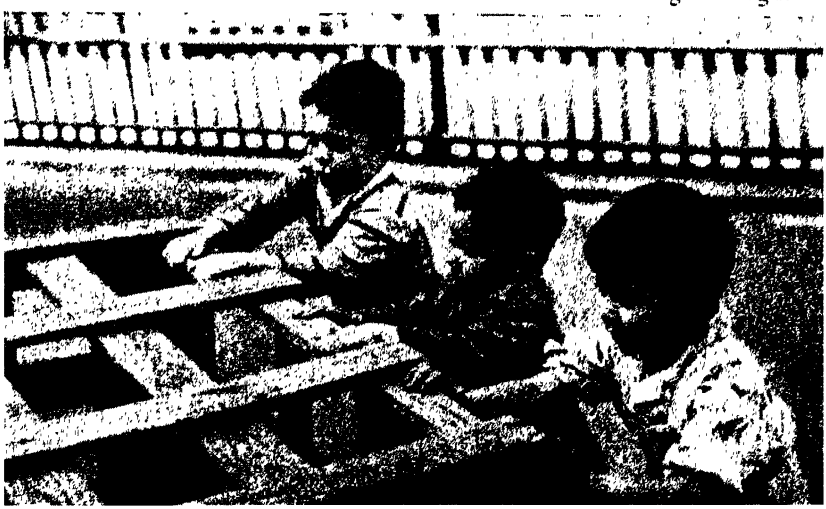
George L. Bankston





Some children can't play easily because they worry about affairs at home.

Three minds with but a single thought.



feet is stopped and fatigue and restlessness ensue. Using this measuring method will mean the use of chairs and tables of the above mentioned heights, rather than chairs of from 9 to 12 inches as recommended by some nursery school texts. When a teacher must supervise ten children sitting at one table, it is of utmost importance to have each child sitting comfortably in relation to the food on the table as well as to the child next to him, and to have the weight of his feet upon the floor.

The table should be high enough to allow full clearance for the knees, but low enough to take the elbow in the position of resting at right angles, or at a very slight acute angle. To have the table low enough, and still leave room for knees, it is essential to have the table apron either very shallow (making construction weak) or deeply recessed. Though some two-year-olds need a 6-inch chair and a 14-inch table, a set of tables and chairs in four heights will accommodate most children between the ages of two and five years. These heights are: 7-inch chairs and 15-inch tables for two-year-olds, 8-inch chairs and 16-inch tables for three-year-olds, 9-inch chairs and 18-inch tables for four-year-olds, and 10-inch chairs and 19–20-inch tables for five-year-olds. There will always be some children large or small for their age, so that seating of children must be done by size instead of by age. If each age room has two heights of tables and chairs, all can usually be seated properly.

There is considerable fear on the part of parent purchasers that children will soon outgrow little chairs and new ones will have to be provided, and therefore they buy chairs for the children to grow into. Since nursery schools are designed for present rather than future physical needs of two- and three-year-olds, as well as for four- and five-year-olds, there is no excuse for not having chairs and tables low enough for even the smallest ones. Actually little if any posture damage results from sitting in a chair too low, whereas sitting on one too high can produce both posture and behavior problems. The design of the chair should leave an open space at the back where the buttocks can come over the edge. In this respect Windsor chairs are bad. A slight hollowing of the seat is a good feature, and likewise a curved back.

In the matter of tables and chairs, the nursery schools are no more to blame than the kindergartens, the elementary schools, and the high schools of the land. These provide varying heights of desks

and seats, but seldom ones low enough, so that about half the class is usually not properly seated. If all the seats were moved forward a grade or two and new ones obtained for the first grade, this condition could be remedied. Since nursery school educators make such a point of an environment suited to the child's physical growth needs, they would do well to give more attention to this matter of exact chair heights.

In our schools all chairs and tables are identified by colors as to heights. Either the entire chair and table to match are one color, or the tops of the chairs and the edges of the matching tables are of the same color. Thus the child learns to pick the color which is "his" and the teachers "measure" each child for the right height and see to it that he gets the right table and chair not only when eating but also for as much of his handwork as can be arranged without nagging. When all the children in a room are of one age, one height may be enough, though two heights for each room is better. However, it should be repeated that if a child can get his legs under the table (and he can if there is no apron), it does no harm for him to sit on a chair a little too low for him. In schools which adjust tables and chairs to proper heights, teachers have reported an astonishing behavior change resulting from this one physical change.

Since we are trying to increase the capacity of our schools without overcrowding them, we have had to dispense with all furniture which takes space needed for beds unless it is essential. Sometimes a book table has had to go. But a room set up for thirty children with three large tables will take sixteen children simultaneously for handwork and still leave one table available for books. If the tables are grouped near each other, it is easier to supervise a large group, and it is easier for the housekeeper to set and clear the tables. Wooden table tops should be varnished or finished with a high gloss paint. If an oilcloth cover is used for clay work or finger painting, the surface is protected from the many heavy scrubbings which destroy the finish. Linoleum tops do not need this protection. Clay does not stick to the reverse side of oilcloth.

Sleeping Equipment

Cots are a headache in more ways than one. They get dirty, sag, break fairly easily, are awkward to fold up and put away, and are

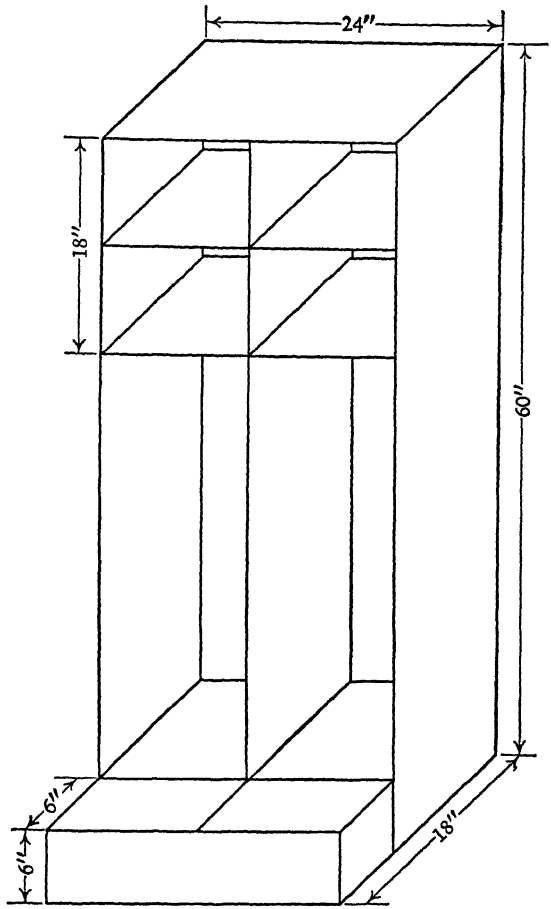
tiring to move. But we must have cots. Of course, if they are in a separate sleep-room, they give little trouble, but a separate sleep-room means fewer children per building. Many more children can be kept off the streets if the cots are picked up and sleep-rooms used for the combined purpose of eating, playing, and sleeping. Many types of cots are used by different schools. The old-fashioned cots which have two legs joined so that they fold and unfold simultaneously are better to handle. Well-made ones of this type have held up for years in some of our schools. The trouble with them is that both end legs have to be held in place by two hands and one foot when the time comes to put them in the rack, which is hard on teachers' and housekeepers' shoes, ankles, stockings, and temper. Installation of a cupboard catch at each end overcomes this difficulty.

Cots should be in two sizes to save floor space and wear and tear on adult back muscles. The youngest children rest well on a 24-inch by 48-inch size; older ones on one 27 inches by 54 inches. We have recently solved much of the cot headache by tacking the mattress pad to the old canvas cots and then upholstering that with a leatherette material which comes in several colors. Thus, the beds can be easily washed with a sterile solution once a week and kept clean and attractive. We use no sheets, only a pillow made with a double piece of blanket folded approximately to size 12 by 15 inches and put into a pillow case to go under the head. We use a 54 by 27-inch blanket to cover the child. The leatherette looks "cold" but actually is room temperature when the child lies down on it, and soon becomes warmer from his body heat under the blanket. Each child's "pillow" and blanket are stored in his own locker, which has double upper shelves. The bedding can be quickly put away. With no pads or sheets to handle, the housekeeper can set beds down at the rate of one a minute. The older children carry their own blankets and pillows to and from their beds. The teacher places the younger children's. We do not undress the children for sleep; only their shoes are removed. It is a great relief not to fuss with pads, sheets, blankets, and spreads. An objection to our procedure is that the blankets get dirty from the children's clothes. Blankets cannot be washed very frequently because of laundry costs and wear and tear, and weekly laundering requires a double supply. However, blankets get dirty even when

sheets are used, because the sheets don't always stay in place. The answer is probably washable blanket slip covers made of thin, dark, washable material such as a light weight cambric (if it can ever be purchased again). These could be laundered every two weeks or oftener if necessary. Until cotton fabrics are again available, blankets will not be as clean as we should like, or else they will be used up in the laundering. Upholstering the cots is work any teacher can do. Number 6 carpet tacks are used. The upholsterers work in pairs, first on the ends and then on the sides, or else in groups of four, one on each side pulling the material tight. The material is first laid on a table and then the cot upside down on the material; corners are mitered.

Storage Space

Lockers are usually an eyesore in a school, but they need not be. If possible, they should be placed so that you do not look right into them when you enter the room. When put on a side wall or on the wall where the door is, they don't offend so much. By the room's entrance door is a convenient as well as a less unsightly place. A locker is sometimes nothing but an orange crate, but no school will have a good appearance unless the lockers are neatly made and properly placed. An excellent type of locker is shown with specifications in the illustration on page 27. These are portable, made in units of twos, threes, and fours, so that teachers can move them; and they can be placed and replaced as changing enrollment requires modifications of room arrangement. Note the shelf for blankets, the one for hats and extra pants, and the ledge to sit on. There is no lower compartment below the coat section for rubbers because such a compartment is too hard to keep clean. Rubbers can go on the floor of the coat compartment. When lockers have no back except the room wall, most of the wall space goes for lockers. When backed, they can be used to divide the room or to make "walls" for a doll corner. Tippy lockers can always be lightly nailed to a wall. The style locker illustrated here cannot tip over. Placing the lockers in the toilet or in a locker room is most unsatisfactory for practical supervision. If they are in the playroom, a child may go to his locker as often as he likes, and the teacher can supervise his locker habits on his



arrival and departure while also watching a room full of children. Each child should have an individual locker. If cubicles are not made too big, the expense of construction is cut down; also, they mean less space to keep clean, and leave more wall space available for other furniture.

Cupboards are for toys, blocks, books, and all materials needed by children and teachers. They should be built to fit wall spaces, made in proper heights and lengths, but not built in permanently. A twelve-inch width will do for most things except newsprint and

larger books. They should all have backs; some should have doors to close off materials which are useful but unsightly. One high cupboard for teacher-controlled books and material is needed in each room. Wall space is usually limited; therefore cupboards, like lockers, should not be attached and immobile. Portable, backed cupboards make room arrangement flexible. Window seats are catchalls, hard to clean, and sometimes dangerous for children to climb and run on. Block cupboards should be made in sections which hold the various lengths of blocks and make it easy for children and teachers to place one size in one pile. Cupboards that fit into corners look attractive, but cannot easily be used in other places. Painting the edges and the outside of cupboards a different color from the inside often gives a good effect.

Other Classroom Equipment

Easels take floor space, so they are here considered as equipment. They should be easy to move about, well balanced, and of good design. The easels should be of such height as to enable a child to reach the center of the paper when his arm is stretched out at right angles. When the tray for the glasses is set quite low, the ends of the brushes do not interfere with the painting surface of the paper.

Steps are often needed for a high toilet, though a chair is better. Otherwise, steps are a nuisance because they take floor space and must be picked up for sweeping, yet cannot be used for eating or work at the tables. Steps are usually made low enough to be comfortable, whereas the chairs usually are not; that is why teachers report that children enjoy using them as seats. Heavy steps are very much in the way, slide on the floor, and are not safe for inside use.

Benches are likewise in the way when not in use. A low bench in the toilet is often useful because here the children, who sometimes have to wait their turn, will sit quietly; whereas standing fairly still is almost impossible for the younger children. A bench is also a convenient place to lay coats while toileting proceeds. Benches should always be low enough to make the youngest child comfortable. Thus, seven inches is a good height, although under six inches is too low.

Screens are no longer used regularly for our sleep period. However, two screens to a room may be useful to give privacy to a child at some time or other, therefore we have not discarded them entirely. All screens are somewhat perishable. Those on a base lose the base, and those that hinge loosen at the hinges.

A cot dolly is useful in some rooms, but if cots are stored not far from the sleep space, they can be carried one by one for placing on the floor. A cot dolly must have good rollers and be closed in on three sides so that the children cannot climb on it.

A food guerney is a glorified tea cart. It is almost a necessity where the kitchen is more than a few steps from the playroom. The best type is one closed in on three sides so that the children cannot get at it from all sides at once.

No nursery school is complete without some music experience for the children. The phonograph and the piano are great helps for it, especially the phonograph, which every teacher can "play." An *indoor sand box*, size 60 inches square and metal lined, is good to have for wet sand on rainy days. Every school needs good *scales* for weighing children periodically. Five-year-olds can get great pleasure from a *carpenter bench* and hammer and saw. Younger children also enjoy playing with them, but have not the skill to produce much in the way of a finished product. The average nursery school will not be able to afford the space and supervision necessary for carpentry, especially for the younger children. Tools are dangerous unless adequately supervised, and considering the inexperience of many teachers and the disturbed condition of a high proportion of the children, we do not recommend carpentering tools as basic equipment. The school provides enough other things for a rich curriculum so that no child is too badly deprived by waiting until he is six to saw and hammer at school.

So far as the children are concerned, our list of indoor equipment is complete. A teacher needs chairs, 10-inch ones for the lunch table and storytelling, and 16-inch ones for the times when she can sit for her own rest and comfort. A 10-inch chair makes it possible for even a tall woman to be reasonably comfortable at the table. A higher chair brings her too far up to reach easily to all the children, and it makes her look more awkward than does a lower one.

The office needs a desk with drawers and a filing cabinet. A

bookcase and two or three comfortable chairs are also needed. A table or desk in the reception hall is required for morning inspection. A teachers' bulletin board should be in the office or in the teachers' room, and a parents' bulletin board in the entrance hall.

Odd tables, school desks, unused bookcases, old blackboards, and other unneeded articles of furniture should not be left standing around. Eliminating them saves space and speeds cleaning service.

Many a nursery school has good equipment and good housing, yet looks disorganized because things have been placed with only functional purposes in mind. Appearance is also very important. Essential function should not be sacrificed for appearance, but it should be noted that a little inconvenience for teachers may result in such a balanced, attractive room that it is pleasant to work in. What different things can be done with the same rooms and equipment is illustrated in the way that the various rooms in the F.P.H.A. buildings have been set up. Some of these schools show attractive and satisfactory functional arrangement.

Outdoor Equipment

Climbing apparatus is the first thing one thinks of for outdoor equipment. An objection to an indoor climbing place is that it takes floor space needed for things the children cannot do out-of-doors and is too noisy for indoors. Keeping in mind that we are trying to make a program which provides opportunity for the maximum number of children within a given space, we shall have to make choices. There are so many other things the children can do inside that they do not need to climb and slide. It is true that rainy weather sometimes keeps them from the outdoor climbing, but a roofed porch will permit some strenuous play. As you will see when we discuss the daily schedule, the hours between 9:30 and 11:30 are set up for choice of indoor or outdoor activities. Having the same activities indoors and out is not desirable, and no playground would be complete without a jungle gym or tree house or climbing place. If the playground is set up for strenuous activity and the playroom for intensive quieter play, there should be no climbing and jumping inside.

Various types of climbing apparatus can be made or bought. The slide can be attached to a jungle gym or tree house, or it may be a

separate piece of equipment. Beginners like a small slide, but after a few weeks, many of the youngest children enjoy using a higher slide. A jungle gym 8 feet high is safe, except on cement, an 8-foot slide is safe on cement. Stationary platforms on the jungle gym are unsafe because they give a child standing space and free use of both hands to push another child.

A sand box provides endless enjoyment. Every school should have at least two – a big one on the ground for several children to sit in at a time, and a smaller one on legs with metal lining for wet sand. Covers are needed to keep animals out and to keep the sand from blowing away. The ground sand box should not be over 15 inches high, and built with an 8-inch ledge shelf all around. The covers should not hinge, but be removable. When they hinge, they make a platform or runway which stimulates strenuous play too near the sand box.

Swings are the most enjoyed items of outdoor equipment. There should be at least two sizes on every playground, very low ones on short ropes for the two-year-olds, and higher ones for the threes and fours. Five-year-olds can use even bigger ones, but they are not safe for threes. Seats should be of leather, not wood, so that a hit from the swing will not be dangerous. A trapeze bar is safe and is greatly enjoyed.

Wheel toys are in such demand that no school ever has enough. Tricycles, kiddie cars, wagons, scooters, wheelbarrows, and coasters in proper sizes are all indispensable. We should always have them, even though they are expensive. Information about the number needed is given in the Appendix, page 463.

Rocking boats are fun and safe. They teach coöperative play. Seesaws, monkey bars, sawhorses, chicken coops, and long and short boards are all needed in every play-yard. Big packing boxes and climbing boxes belong, too. Ladders may be omitted. They can lead to dangerous places, and since they do not always have good footings, they are a hazard. Kegs and lined barrels are fun, and inclines give opportunity for group play for even the youngest children.

Hollow blocks for building play are the best equipment for promoting social play in the yard, though they can be enjoyed individually, too. If made of clear lumber 1 inch thick and kept well painted, they will take years of beating, whereas lighter weight

lumber will not hold up. Painting them one color instead of several is better because the children do not fight over the colors; they will construct with an eye for line and mass instead of for color. Blocks should be in two sizes: 6 by 12 by 12 inches, and 6 by 12 by 24 inches, with no handles and no grooves.

Boards for use in block building must be smooth and painted. A good size is 1 by 6 by 60 inches. A plank 2 inches thick which is 8 to 10 inches wide and 10 to 14 feet long makes a good balancing board when placed over low sawhorses, or over two heavy blocks.

Sawhorses ranging in height from 12 inches to 18 inches and two to three feet long are needed for supporting the balancing boards.

Packing boxes heavily built in various sizes are constantly used by children. If made to order, lumber 1 inch thick should be used, and they should be painted both inside and out.

Hollow barrels placed on racks are fun to crawl through.

Low benches for sitting while drinking fruit juice are convenient.

Merry-go-rounds of the type shown in illustrations are durable and valuable for all ages in the nursery school.

A storage space in the yard must be provided for blocks and wheel toys to be put away in at night. Other things are not so likely to be damaged by the weather or stolen by older children. Keeping equipment in condition is, because of the vandalism of older neighborhood children, the number one problem in many schools.

All the above-mentioned items should be standard equipment in every school. Some other things are desirable, but until larger budgets for equipment and supervision are in the offing, we cannot consider them standard equipment. We try to keep these minimum essential things in good working condition for daily use.

Selected Reading

Bennett, Henry Eastman, *School Posture and Seating*. Boston, Ginn and Company, 1928.

The conscientious work of this author is presented in readable form. It shows proper measurements for desks and seats for the school-age child. Incidentally, the author finds that kindergartens need 10-inch chairs. How many in America have them?

4

Materials

UNDER THIS TERM we include all articles which might be called consumable, such as paper, paste, and crayons, as well as more durable items such as blankets, plants, and telephones — in short, all the things needed in a school which do not take floor space. Materials are of several kinds, and are here divided into five groups: classroom, household, office, medical and general. The items needed are listed and described here so that you may know what things to expect to find and what not to expect. Also, a brief word will be given on care of some of these materials. Proper use of them by the children will be dealt with under Activities. Again, if some statements seem unnecessarily obvious, my wanderings have led me into schools so lacking even in obviously essential items that I cannot omit listing them here. Let us begin with those used by the children for play.

CLASSROOM SUPPLIES

Paints for the easel come in water-soluble powdered form, usually in cardboard containers and in a variety of colors. Red, blue, green, yellow, violet, brown, black, white, orange, and cerise should always be on hand. Paints should be non-poisonous, strongly colored, and finely ground. They are usually known as dry poster paint, or children's easel paint in dry form. Ready mixed poster paints are too expensive. Several good brands of paint powder are available at stationery stores. Calsomine paints from the hardware stores are not good because of poor texture and color range. Small boxes of water colors are never used; they are not suitable for

young children because their use involves too finely coördinated muscle activity. Oil paints for wood are so seldom used that they are not considered basic materials. Finger paint can be colored with easel paint, but preferably with food dye.

Brushes should be in three sizes: ⅜ inch, ½ inch, and ¾ inch. A fairly stiff bristle brush is better than a soft hair one, though occasionally the latter can be used and enjoyed by certain children.

Easel aprons made of plastic material which can be easily washed off are best. They need cover only the front of the child; but *finger paint aprons* are better when they are made of ticking and cover more of the child's clothing, because the finger paint is often on the edge of the table, and children rub against it as they move around.

Crayons can be bought in small, medium, and large sizes. Small ones (pencil thickness) are somewhat too small, and are not recommended. The biggest ones are best, but more colors are available in the middle size, so we use both sizes (— ⅜ inch and the + ⅜ inch diameter). Crayons should be guaranteed non-poisonous. The ones flattened on one side do not roll off the table and are preferable.

Crayons should be kept in containers on a shelf readily accessible to the children. Individual boxes can be made with an assortment of colors, or large community boxes can hold all the colors, or each color can be kept in a container painted the color of the crayon. When individual boxes are used, the children mix up the crayons and sometimes have an incomplete set; it is a nuisance to keep the sets completed. When community boxes are used, there is sometimes quarreling unless the box is kept well supplied with all colors, for as soon as there are not enough red crayons to go around, everyone is suddenly moved with the urge to use red. Empty number one-half tin cans (tuna fish size) make good containers for crayons. They should be painted with oil paint (not water paint) on the outside; or, if this is impractical, a piece of the right color paper can be pasted on the outside of the can. This arrangement of crayons by colors and cans helps the children identify colors, and they seem to enjoy taking these out of the color can and returning them while working at the table.

Chalk crayon, which is colored and known as pastel chalk, is a good material for children's drawing, especially on wet paper. It

comes in the regular ⅜ inch or chalk size, and in ⅞ inch or thick size. One size is too small and one too big, so it is hard to say which is preferable. We use both.

Clay usually comes in powdered form; it can be bought ready mixed, but this is expensive. The best clay is that used by pottery factories. If not available there, it can be bought at stores which carry nursery school and kindergarten supplies. Certain prepared clays also have a valid use in the nursery school if they are not too hard to manipulate. These are usually expensive, however, and therefore cannot be given to children in a large enough amount for good work. Colored flour dough is good material to use like clay. Clay is best kept in a large five-gallon crock with a cover of wet cloth, not of crockery. The prepared clays should be kept in a large glass or tin container with a tight cover.

Blocks are of several kinds. The indispensable ones are known as unit blocks, because they come in units of various lengths, two of which equal one of the next larger unit. These blocks, which were designed by Caroline Pratt, are the best type yet developed. They should be of sandpapered hardwood, because homemade ones of soft wood splinter and easily get dirty. They are not cheap to make unless labor is volunteered. Unit blocks should never be painted because this results in quarreling over colors and discourages construction designs based on mass and line rather than color. Other materials lend themselves better for color work, and blocks are especially valuable for mass and line. At least a triple quantity of blocks would be needed to make them useful as color material.

One-inch cube blocks are good for table use; these can be colored if they are available in large enough quantity for individual use. Painted, shaped blocks that fit together into designs or structures are of some value if they do not make letters of the alphabet. Table blocks are best kept in one large container for community use. Most construction sets are dangerous because children may fall on stick ends. (They are, however, useful with older children.) ABC blocks should never be used because they may set visual images which may later interfere with the process of learning to read. Notched logs are not suitable, nor are several commercial varieties of small colored or picture blocks. Odds and ends of wood blocks that don't match cause frustration, and should never be

around. Unit blocks are essential equipment, and the most satisfactory. Blocks of the big interlocking type are not good in nursery school, because the children are not old enough to use them appropriately. Hollow floor blocks, size 6 by 6 by 12 inches, are good for indoors if there is plenty of floor space. They can be made of hard or soft wood but must be well surfaced with varnish or two coats of paint. The above-named items, paint, blocks, clay, crayons, with the books and the dolls, are the basic materials used in the six indoor activities which are *always available* to the children under our program; their importance is therefore evident.

Toys, as we usually think of them, should be scarce in nursery school. Small wooden dolls, interlocking wooden trains, small trucks and cars, all of which can be used in connection with block play, are good. Toy soldiers or other emotionally disturbing toys are not approved. Mechanical toys, especially ones that make noises, are not appropriate. Animals or objects that can be pulled on a string are good for two-year-olds. Toy boats must be made to move flat on the floor, as we do not have water in which to sail them. No floor toy should have anything protruding which is small enough to go into the eye of a child who falls on it, or through the roof of his mouth if he tries to eat it. Balls in varying sizes, nested blocks, and baskets are good. Most of the so-called educational playthings are not suitable for school use, since the parts get misplaced. Marbles are bad because they get lost outside and cause too much running across floors when used inside. Stuffed animals are good, if they are not too big, and if they can be properly cleaned. Balls and beanbags of different sizes are needed, and pounding boards are indispensable. Needless to say, all toys should be able to take a beating, and any toys easily crushed or broken should not be used.

Dolls and the doll corner are of critical importance. Suitable dolls were hard to get through the war years, but are now more obtainable. Rubber dolls about twelve or fifteen inches long are best because they do not break and can be kept clean. Elaborately dressed, breakable dolls with real hair are inappropriate. Under *Activities* we say that dolls are to be beaten and stepped on, so they should be able to take it. Clothes can be simple and few, for dolls are preferred naked most of the time. Most costume dolls should not be used in nursery school. A chest or box should be used to hold doll clothes.

Doll furniture can be plentiful for the four- and five-year-olds. The twos and threes need a bed (big enough for them instead of the dolls to get into), a table not over fifteen inches high and not over twenty-four inches square, four small chairs not more than six inches high and different, if possible, from the room chairs. They also need a box for doll clothes and blankets, a simple set of shelves, a kitchen stove (scaled to table), a rocker, and some kind of settee. A few simple dishes, an iron, a telephone, some blankets, and pieces of colored cloth, plus a few dress-up clothes, will usually suffice for the younger children's doll corner. Miniature doll furniture should never be used in nursery school.

The older children need the same things plus many more items. The bed should be about 20 inches by 30 inches; the table not more than 16 inches high and 24 inches square, and the chairs 6 inches high. These, being lower than their own chairs, pass for doll chairs, but are not too small to take the children who want to use them instead of having their dolls do so. A doll high chair can be used if it is not big enough to tempt a child to try to sit on it. A regular child's high chair, with six inches cut off the legs, is useful. The older children need more dishes, empty tin cans on which the labels are left, empty food cartons, clock, radio, dressing table, sink, dresser, broom, dustpan, doll carriage, and ironing board. Clotheslines and clothespins are omitted in our schools because we do not have space for them. Odds and ends of real dishes can be used by older children, especially if the dishes are fairly heavy, for children seem to like them better than tiny sets of doll dishes.

Dress-up clothes are a most popular and valuable nursery equipment. They include high-heeled shoes, hats, shawls of bright material, dresses, blouses, and skirts that have been somewhat shortened. They should be washable, except for hats, which must be replaced when they get too shabby. Women's garments size 12 to 14, with short sleeves, need little alteration. In most cases, elastic around the waist is all that is needed. Such garments can usually be obtained through a notice on the parents' bulletin board. A chest for dress-up clothes is better for the doll corner than drawers of a doll dresser or shelves, because the clothes can be thrown quickly into the box in one pile when the doll corner is tidied up.

Beads for the children to string should be colored, and not less than 2 inches in circumference. The hole should be not less than

⅛ inch in size. Smaller beads and holes produce nervous strain. That is why we do not string colored macaroni. Bead strings should have good tips. Frayed ends can be stiffened with fingernail polish. Beads should be kept in boxes or baskets that a child can easily carry without spilling. These should hold enough for him to work with but not the entire supply, since it is often desirable to let a child use beads when he is asked to sit away from the others.

Puzzles should range from four- or five-piece ones for the younger children to twenty-piece ones for the older children. Those of plywood or pressed wood 5/16 inch thick are good. Puzzles which show ugly objects should be avoided. When cardboard backed puzzles are used, it is good to paint a spot of one color on the back of each piece to keep the puzzles from getting hopelessly mixed up. Backs of wooden puzzles should be painted a color, so that when various puzzles get put in one box, they can be readily separated again into sets.

Peg boards can be in various sizes of board and colored pegs from ⅛ inch to 1 inch in diameter. Even the two-year-olds can use pegs ⅛ inch in diameter. Pegs are now available which have attractive ornamented tops of houses, trees, balls, and such devices. Pegs may be stored in shallow boxes or tin cans.

Poker chips in colors in a container are enjoyed by children of all ages; they sense color, shape, texture, and get an idea of number from their use.

Scissors with rounded ends and not under 4 inches nor over 6 inches long should be available at the rate of one pair for every four children enrolled. The plastic ones which don't cut hair or clothing do not always cut paper either.

Paper of various kinds is required in every nursery school. Newsprint is needed for easel painting and for crayoning, and cheap drawing paper is used for some crayoning and for colored chalk work. Thin colored construction paper in size 8½ inches by 11 inches is also used for chalk work and for collage. A heavier and larger kind is needed for scrapbooks and picture mounting. A roll of smooth paper, called butcher paper because it is used to wrap meat, is required for finger painting.

Paste can be made from flour and water; but for the amount used with children under five, a prepared library paste in quart jars warrants the extra cost. Glue should not be used by the children.

Pencils with thick heavy lead are sometimes well used by children. However, since we want to discourage premature efforts at writing in the nursery school, and a pencil often suggests that purpose, it is better not to have too many pencils about.

Pictures are needed for their decorative value to the room and for the value of their content to the children and the adults. Parents and teachers can also be considered in selecting permanent pictures, which it is hoped will not be of the literal photographic school of art of Jessie Willcox Smith. Mats for mounting some of the children's paintings should be on hand. Besides a few permanent pictures, which give stability to the room, a rotating exhibit of mounted pictures should be supplied. The procedure for mounting such pictures is the same as for making scrapbooks. These two types, and the children's drawings and paintings, are all that should be used. Decalcomanias on furniture and walls, figured wall papers and borders, advertising, and health posters lower the appearance of playrooms and are in very bad taste. Posters, if they are necessary, should go on bulletin boards, and decalcomanias be forever abolished. Hand painted decorations by teachers should be used only if they are of real artistic value.

Books are of two kinds: ones to which children have access at all times and ones which we call teacher-controlled. Homemade scrapbooks and cheap, durable purchased books are for children's use and consumption. Expensive ones are for the teacher's use at story-telling time, and for children's use when the teacher can give enough supervision to see that the books are not destroyed or abused.

Scrapbooks can be made by teachers during rest time and by parents under supervision that insures their being properly made. They are better than most purchased picture books for "looking at" because there is no story which the child wants someone to read to him, great variety and quantity of book material can be had at low cost, and wider range of subject matter can be provided. Some rules for making scrapbooks and mounting pictures are:

1. Never use a picture which has an objectionable feature, for good pictures are plentiful. Have quantities on hand before you start pasting.
2. Select pictures for a book which will give it some unity

such as in subject matter, size, or color used for mounting. Making a book with pictures of only one subject such as dogs, babies, food, or any other subject helps to sharpen the child's perception.

3. Mount all pictures neatly, paste all edges firmly, and space pictures effectively on the page. Use heavy or medium weight construction paper. Punch a few holes for binding pages together and lace with yarn. Crease each paper ¾ inch from the bound edge so that it lies flat as the pages are turned.

4. Use only colored pictures in one book, black and whites in another.

5. Mount colored pictures on colored paper which matches some color in the picture.

6. Put pages of different colors together harmoniously.

7. Use only pictures which can give clear outline edges without elaborate cutting. Always cut off any printed matter.

8. Never use cartoons or fanciful, unrealistic drawings. Use pictures which can be explained in a few simple words when the child asks, "What's that?".

9. Make some books as small as 3 inches by 6 inches (for special pictures) and some as large as 12 inches by 15 inches for big colored ones of special value.

10. Consider age level interest in selecting pictures — simple, single subjects for two-year-olds. Older children have eye muscles which can better stand the strain of looking at more complicated pictures.

11. Never use a picture that shows war, death, illness, or severe suffering. The children can get upset from looking at such pictures.

12. Remove damaged pages and keep books in good condition.

A large suit box is useful for keeping *cut out pictures* until such time as they can be properly mounted.

Collage articles are another item on our list of materials used by the children. Bits of cloth, paper, metal, string, buttons, yarn, or anything else that can be pasted on paper in any fashion the child likes, make a result known as collage; this activity is especially enjoyed by older nursery school children.

Musical instruments should include at least drums, bells, castanets, and wood knockers or sticks. Tambourines and triangles can probably be used, and tympani if there is a skilled music teacher. Sometimes it is better to have more of a few kinds of instruments than a few of many kinds. Certain ones are preferred over others, and it is hard to give everyone enough turns with a favorite instrument. Musical toys should be kept in a fairly large basket tray, so that they are spread out for the children to see easily as they choose their instruments when the tray is passed.

Sand-box utensils can be largely empty tin cans that have been cut with smooth edges. They can easily be replaced as they get rusty or bent. Glass or crockery should never be used. Muffin tins and molds are good, and cast aluminum will not rust or dent. Trowels should have a rounded end to be safe, and they should be lightweight to prevent damage from a blow with one. Lightweight but sturdy square-shaped shovels and large kitchen spoons are best for sand digging.

Plants make any room look better, and every school should have some — not just scraggly geraniums or pitiful shoots of green, but a few five-dollar philodendrons, rubber plants, or seasonal plants of beauty. Wandering Jew does well in water in some places, but philodendrons are the hardiest and best.

Pets are hard to care for in schools where staff members are so busy. Usually there is no one to provide for them over the week-end, and neglected pets have no place in a nursery school. Turtles and goldfish are out of the children's reach and do them little good, while pets within their reach easily suffer fatal injury. Such pets are better for primary age children, though some five-year-olds also can enjoy them properly.

Blankets have been made for all our schools from dark-colored wool blankets, size 72 inches by 108 inches, cut as follows: The blanket is folded and cut down the middle into two pieces each 36 inches by 108 inches. These two pieces are again cut 27 inches from one end. The two small pieces are then sewed together; thus three cot blankets of the same size are made from one full size blanket. If the two pieces that are sewed together are stitched on the machine by the original binding edges, a neater job results. Each blanket is then overcast with No. 60 thread in a matching color to prevent raveling. Name tapes are sewed on the corners

with a light overcasting stitch, so that they can be easily removed before the blanket goes to the laundry and replaced by new ones. A piece of tape about ¾ inch wide and 3 inches long, with the name written on it in heavy black pencil, makes a neat label, and one easy to read.

Sheets are not used for our daily nap, but a few cot-size sheets are convenient to have for the isolation room, and to be used as blankets on very hot days. One can also be folded and put on top of a rubber sheet to soak up the urine of a child who wets heavily in his sleep, although old bath towels are better for this purpose.

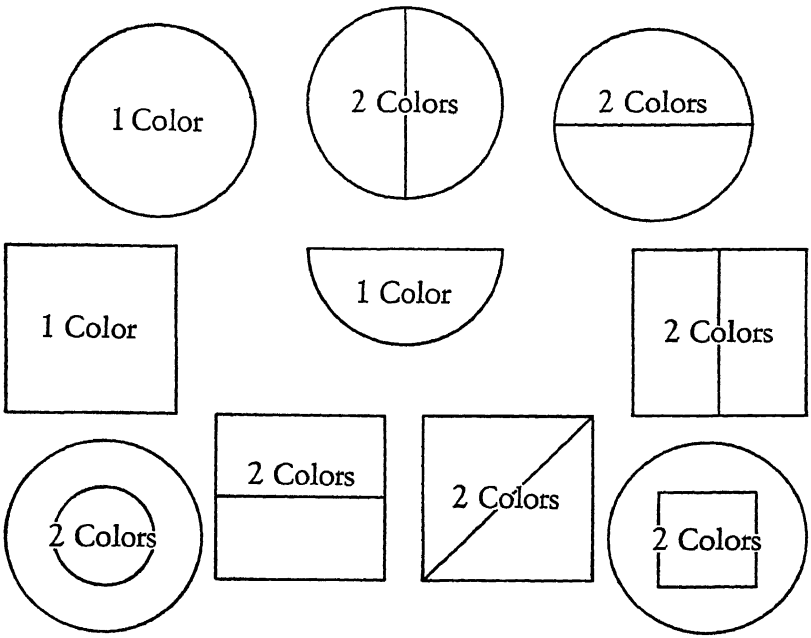
Pillows are made out of old blankets or soft bed pads cut approximately 20 inches by 15 inches or 10 inches by 30 inches and folded over once. This gives the "pillow" enough weight to lie flat in a pillowcase and yet gives minimum padding under the child's head. These blanket pieces are easy to launder, and they are not readily soiled if the pillowcase is large enough to come down over the open end several inches.

Pillowcases have to be made out of muslin or old sheets. There should be at least three and a half times as many pillowcases as children enrolled to have plenty if the laundry is not returned promptly. In some schools where the children's heads stay fairly clean, cases need to be changed only once a week. Where dusty and sooty air settles on the hair while children play, the cases will have to be changed twice a week, and a larger supply will have to be provided.

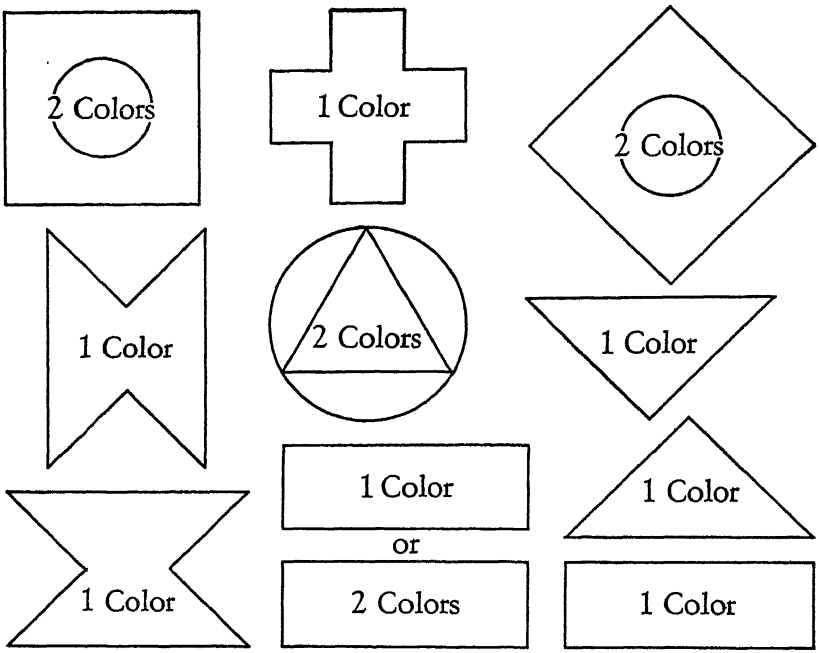
Rubber sheets are not essential when the beds are covered with leatherette but a few should be available for heavy wetters.

Bibs are used only by two-year-olds in our schools. They are made of terry cloth, and are not too large. Self-help bibs are perhaps all right for the older children, but not for the younger ones in large groups; so teachers put the bibs on the children.

Children's clothing should be provided by parents, and should include necessary changes. However, parents never quite live up to this obligation, so we have some school pants, shirts, socks, and coveralls in each age size to use in emergencies. They are stamped with the school's name. The parent is charged fifty cents for pants or shirts which are not returned clean within one week, and two dollars for a pair of coveralls. If poor children do not have enough clothes, the school sees to it that clothes are provided by some social agency or individual.



Locker markers are needed for each towel and coat locker. The best means of identification are abstract symbols painted on the wood with oil paint. Thus they are both indestructible and washable. Stickers pasted on the wood or on tags are perishable. Children also will take strong likes and dislikes to the symbol allotted to them when it is an animal or other picture. Aside from their emotional content, stickers are often played with by the children, and are difficult to keep clean. Abstract designs have no emotional appeal. A set of twenty forms, such as those shown below, can be rotated along a row of lockers by using a different color for repeats. The floor of the coat locker is the best place to paint the design. The space above the hook is the place to put the design of the towel rack so that it can be seen when the towel is hanging. Teachers cannot remember all these labels and will need to have name plates on each locker. A piece of metal strip, such as those used in grocery stores for price tags makes good spaces for removable cards on which the full name of the child is written. Covering the cards with Scotch tape prevents the children from removing them



The locker symbols are here reproduced about size for use. The symbols should be kept as abstract as possible with outlines that are not too difficult to paint. The use of any designs that look like numbers or letters is undesirable. The twenty symbols here shown can be repeated several times by using new sets of colors. It is simpler, of course, to have one set for each row of lockers placed in one position.

Office Supplies

Some nursery schools have a teacher's desk in each room made of a high shelf where the teacher can write while standing. This is good wherever teachers are required to make many running comments on a child's behavior; but in our schools one office space for the use of the entire staff is adequate.

A desk with drawers is essential for an office, for there must be a handy place to put away articles. An office desk also gives a businesslike atmosphere; it helps both parents and teacher to conduct business briefly and simply. Besides a desk the office should

have at least three chairs for adults, and one or two for children. A large letter file for proper storage of records is also essential. The desk needs a good blotter pad and fresh blotter, perhaps a bowl of flowers or a plant, and no other objects except those which are removed from the files as used. (A list of office supplies needed is given in the inventory, in the Appendix, p. 466.) Pen and ink should not be left on top of the desk because children may come into the office. Likewise the roll book, receipt book, and other papers should be kept in a drawer instead of on the desk top.

Medical Supplies

Nursery school medical closets should contain certain items recommended by the school physician, and no others. No medication should ever be given by the teachers other than the application of Methiolate, calamine, peroxide, burn ointment, and flea powder. Since iodine and Methiolate should never be applied to the skin together, they should never be together in the same medicine cabinet. *Methiolate* is preferable for our use. It goes on all the skin wounds, which can also be covered with prepared bandages. Wounds are washed with soap and water and rinsed with *peroxide*, which sometimes bubbles out a little of the dirt. *Alcohol* is needed for sterilizing the *thermometer*, petrolatum to put on the end of it before it is inserted in the rectum.

Household Supplies

Towels for the children need not be larger than 7 inches by 15 inches; they can be made of terry cloth or huck toweling. The loop should be attached in the center, not in one corner, to help keep the corners from touching when they hang close together. It is more satisfactory if all towels are separated by wood partitions as shown in the illustration. Symbols for the towel lockers should be the same as those for the coat lockers, of abstract design painted in oil on the wood as shown in the illustration. An adequate supply of towels is eight to ten times the number of children enrolled. Towels must be changed at least twice a week or even oftener, and allowance must be made for failure of laundry delivery. Daily clean towels are a highly desirable luxury. Since children tend to

wipe their hands on the same spot on the towel each day, it is better to have several small towels and change them oftener, than one large one and expect children to hunt out the clean spots.

Kitchen towels should be of a different size and shape from children's towels so that there is never any confusion about their being for kitchen use only. Hemmed flour sacks, like those used by our grandmothers, still make the best dish towels.

Paper towels should always be available for the teacher's use in taking off some of the heavy dirt from the children's hands and arms, and for use in place of the cloth towel if one is not present in the rack. There should be a supply not only in the toilets, but also in the kitchen, and in the classroom for finger painting. It is much better to have them in containers out of the children's reach than where the children can help themselves. They are capable of doing this, but the danger of a stopped toilet from the unsupervised use of paper towels is great.

Cloths for cleaning are next on our list, which still contains more than one hundred items to be described briefly. There should be an adequate supply of cleaning cloths for nine different purposes: for cleaning easels, toilets, floors, eating tables, windows, beds, dishes, and furniture. A general rag bag should hold only the clean unused rags, and places should be provided for the care of all cleaning cloths while in use. It is very important that the cloth used for cleaning the tables before eating be kept only for that purpose and washed in the kitchen sink instead of in the janitor's sink or the hand wash basin. The same, of course, holds for the dish cloths. When rags are scarce, it is important to keep them as clean as possible so that their use may be prolonged. If each one is used for a given purpose and is of the appropriate texture, the supply lasts longer.

Cleaning tools should also be kept in their proper places. The *kitchen broom* should be of good quality and kept in the kitchen so that the floor can be brushed as frequently as is necessary, instead of only at the end of the day. A *broom for outside* use should be used for porches and steps — not the kitchen broom, which gets too worn and dirty if used outside. A 15-inch to 18-inch *brush broom* is best for sweeping the playroom floors; a *whisk broom* will get window sills, window seats, and cupboard shelves clean. There should be three *mops* in a nursery school: one for the exclu-

sive use of the kitchen, one for the toilet, and one for the other floors. Kitchen and toilet mops can be small and stand in cone buckets, but the playroom floor mop should be as large as the janitor is able to manipulate. Besides two cone buckets, a large *mop bucket* with a wringer is needed. *Cleaning pails* can be either galvanized or enamel; but an enamel pail for water to wipe tables, lockers, and painted surfaces encourages the use of clean rags and clean water. A *dry mop* is sometimes helpful for dusting. *Brushes* for washing dishes are better than dish cloths. Two types of vegetable brushes are needed; a soft one for celery and a hard one for potatoes. There should be a *dustpan* in the janitor's closet, in the kitchen, and in each playroom, hung next to a whisk broom. *Steel wool* is needed for cleaning various kinds of floor spots and kitchen pans. An outside *clothesline* with pins affords a proper place to hang wet sheets and pants and dish towels. It is important to have *clothes racks* inside for rainy days. One suspended from the ceiling is good if there is a proper place to put it. A garbage pail for the kitchen should be small enough to permit the cook to empty it into the outside garbage can. An enamel pail is, of course, the best, though all garbage should be wrapped before it is put into the cans. Every school needs enough *garbage cans* to hold all the garbage and paper until it is collected. Metal *waste baskets* are best since they can be kept clean and sanitary. There should be one in the kitchen, each toilet and playroom, the office, the isolation room, and the yard. Plastic sponges in various sizes are useful for wiping up spilled milk at the tables or spilled paint.

Paper supplies. It is essential that the toilet paper be of a reasonably soft variety so that it doesn't scratch the children, and also so that it can be used, if necessary, for nose wiping. Sputum napkins, good for nose wipes, can be purchased at a wholesale paper supply store. The regular size paper *napkins*, not the oversize, are best. Paper *cups* are used for drinking water only where there is no drinking fountain, for it is expensive to use them for daily juice. Small paper *sacks* for taking home wet pants should always be available. A *nose wipe box* which hangs up can be made for insertion of packaged flat toilet paper.

Cooks and housekeepers should always wear fresh *aprons*, which can be supplied by the school if the employee does not have any. Teachers find it practical to wear aprons for certain work; although

in general a pinafore is a better garment than a smock for protecting a teacher's dress. It is a good idea for each school to have a supply of pinafores of uniform design and material for use by the teachers.

Sewing supplies should be kept in a neat work basket or box which should be readily available. If possible, teachers should save the buttons from the children's clothes and fasten them back on, especially on outer garments, where the restoration of matching buttons gives the garment a better appearance.

Dishes in nursery schools have been traditionally tiny plates, sometimes even soup plates or soup bowls. During the war, when we could not get these dishes of our traditional choice, we had to use regular dinner size plates in the Vallejo schools, and found that they were quite satisfactory. Since then they have been bought for our Golden Gate schools. The large plate makes it possible to put four items of food on the plate without their touching or mixing together, and there is more room for children to slide the food around the plate while getting it on the spoon. Also a standard serving does not look like so much on a large plate. Plastic dishes are less breakable than regular china but they lose their smooth surface and are not absolutely unbreakable. Hotel china is the most practical but is hard to obtain in attractive designs.

The *service plates* should be of one kind or color at one table. Where several colors are used at one table, the children cry and fuss over choice of color. The same applies to *glasses* and *dessert dishes*. Dishes without designs or decorations are best. The *service bowls* should be high and deep, not wide and shallow, because the latter take up too much room at the table. (See diagram on p. 273.) Three sizes are needed. *Cereal bowls* for breakfast can be small soup plates or regular cereal bowls. Eight-ounce *table glasses* are used for milk in all our schools because they are easy to purchase, easy to wipe dry and keep clean, and allow for the minimum serving of six ounces of milk without having a glass too full. Therefore, when the child learns to empty his glass, he has consumed at least six ounces instead of the three or four which smaller glasses would give him, and there is no need to urge seconds to insure minimum milk consumption. The glasses can be a durable heavy-duty type, but barrel tumblers are too bulging. Small individual baked-bean jars make good *wheat germ containers* because they do not tip over

easily. *Coffee cups* are needed for teachers. *Plastic glasses* are good for juice when it is served outside, because there are no bits of glass in the yard if one is broken. While plastic glasses are not indestructible, they do break less readily. Aluminum cups are also suitable, provided they have no rolled lip edge, which is a germ collector. Aluminum is not so good for milk at the lunch table because the teacher cannot readily see what is left without seeming to snoop. An unbreakable plastic transparent glass with a wide bottom is what we need for all purposes in nursery school. All food should be kept in *containers* which shut out flies, rats, and roaches. *Large glass or tin cans* for sugar, flour, cereals, and staple items are needed. *Glass or crockery containers with covers* should be used for storing icebox foods.

Silverware. Salad forks are about the only ones that young children can handle. *Teaspoons* that have a smooth edge and not a sharp-cut one, as do some of the stainless steel, should be on hand at the rate of two per child enrolled. *Tablespoons* are necessary for serving. A separate set of spoons used only for cod-liver oil is a great convenience and prevents any traces of oil taste on lunch spoons. Plastic spoons are good for cod-liver oil.

Kitchen materials. A four-burner *stove* with an oven underneath is adequate for cooking the menus we use for sixty children, but a stove with a side oven and table top is more convenient. A six-cubic-foot *refrigerator* is a minimum size for the same number of children, but a seven-, eight-, or nine-foot size is better. Open *cupboards* for dishes are satisfactory, because they are used daily, hence do not have time to collect dust. Glasses should always be placed on the shelves right side up, because the chance of the cupboard shelves being dirty is much greater than that of having dust settle on them. A linoleum or durable composition topped *kitchen table* should be used, not an oilcloth covered one. *Towel racks* should be placed where the hair from the head does not brush on to them. One small towel rack hung near the floor is good for drying cleaning cloths, which should not be hung on the dish towel rack. Although we never give children fried foods, a *frying pan* is necessary for sautéing onions and celery, for scrambling a few eggs, and for other purposes. An aluminum *roasting pan*, both bottom and top of which can be used for a dripping pan for puddings, is a good style to have. A four-quart pressure cooker is useful

for pre-cooking tongue, hearts, the meat of a beef stew, and also for certain vegetables. Puddings are best cooked in a *double boiler*. A four- to six-cup and an eight- to twelve-cup *coffee pot* make it possible to have coffee for the teachers each day without waste. All other kitchen items listed on the inventory need no other comment or explanation.

General Utility Supplies

The *cup holder* with paper cups should go in the toilet rather than in the kitchen, to be more readily reached from the yard. A two-yard length of *oilcloth* will cover the eating tables properly for clay work and other handwork. A *garden hose* is useful for watering the sand box, washing off the sidewalk and watering the garden if there is one. The teachers' room needs a *mirror*. A *marking stamp* for identifying school clothing can be ordered from a stationery store, and should be used to stamp all laundry items. A *flashlight* is used for looking down the children's throats; of course a good supply of *batteries* should always be on hand. A *pinning board* can be made of a soft wallboard composition bound by a narrow wood molding; it is used for thumbtacking paintings and pictures. *Bulletin boards* of the same substances should be on the walls, one for parents and one for teachers. A *blackboard* hung in the hall can be used by parents and teachers for writing notices and messages to each other. Every school needs a *telephone*. *Fire extinguishers* are essential. A supply of properly shaped *flower vases* makes it possible to take advantage of any flowers brought to school by children or parents, and any that the budget may allow to be bought from a florist. Whatever method is used for *marking lockers*, the material should be available for quick use when a new child enters. Pieces of metal such as the grocer has on his shelves for inserting price tags are good for writing the names. Stencil patterns in abstract designs painted on the floor of the lockers, are good for the children's identification. Needless to say, a *hammer*, *pliers*, *screwdriver*, and assorted sizes of *nails* and *tacks* are often needed. Proper size *fuses* for the fuse box should be put in a small bag and hung near the fuse box. Extra light bulbs should always be on hand. A *clock* for the kitchen helps to insure the preparation of lunch on time, and one in each playroom and in the office makes it easier for everyone to keep to a schedule. If there is only one

clock in the building, it should be hung where it can be seen most conveniently by everyone.

As you can see, a well-equipped nursery school must have hundreds of these items which we have called materials. When there is a place for everything, and everything is in its place, proper and ready use of materials is facilitated. Although you will find most of the materials that are listed here in our schools, there may be some which for one reason or another are not available at the moment. However, our inventory list does not include all the possible items that could be used in a school. Instead it covers the minimum essentials of a well-equipped school. For example, there are no materials listed for what is known as nature study, although these are often available, and might be considered minimum essentials in certain schools; we consider them optional items.

So far, we have discussed only the physical and inanimate aspects of a nursery school plant. After working a while in a school, the importance of these practical matters will be appreciated. As we stated before, the proper use of materials and equipment will be discussed in Chapters 9 and 10. It is well to be acquainted with these material things before discussing life in the nursery school in terms of children and staff so that we will have a firm foundation on which to base our discussion of their use and value.

Selected Reading

Bulletin of California Program for Care of Children of Working Parents. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, 1943.

A handbook developed by a committee of specialists to assist in the development of Lanham child-care centers.

5

Organization

In the well-conducted nursery school the thousand detailed responses of everyone fit into the total behavior of the whole school as one organism. The many personalities of the school are all going about their own business, but at the same time everyone's conduct is related to the school as a whole. In other words, what goes on in the school hangs together and is not at loose ends. Organization is the sum total of planning for behavior and is a means toward an end; in nursery school that end is the making of a physical and psychological atmosphere in which everyone thrives. In a well-organized school the buildings and the equipment are maintained in good order, food and supplies are there as needed, the staff members know what they are expected to do, the program is carried out as scheduled, the children's behavior is what it should be, the parents are satisfied, and the records are up to date. In the disorganized school just the opposite is true—the building and equipment show evidence of neglect, substitutions are made for scheduled food and supplies, staff members may be doing the best they can under the circumstances but are working as independent individuals instead of as a coördinated group, the program is not followed, the children are upset, the parents are complaining, and the records are incomplete.

The Value of Good Organization

There are four reasons why nursery schools must be thoroughly organized. First, organization promotes growth of the school as an

educational institution. An educational objective cannot be reached unless all efforts are coördinated, and organization helps a school to demonstrate, evaluate, and learn what kind of controls produce the desired results. In order to evaluate what is actually being done, every aspect of school life needs to be thought out, discussed and defined in terms of planned action.

Second, the nursery school situation calls for an over-all pattern of organization. When fifty or sixty children and ten or twelve adults are thrown together for long hours, a situation of either regimentation or bedlam can easily result. Well-planned organization of the school makes it possible to avoid either of these two extremes.

Third, the nature of the children's demands on the environment and other persons makes organization essential. In general, children like the utmost stability in their environment and in other people, but they themselves like to display the utmost instability. Because they must take so much unstable behavior from each other, it is essential that the environment and the adults' behavior give them stabilizing influence. This can be brought about only on the basis of good organization of all the goings-on within the school.

Fourth, the nature of teachers requires that school life be well organized. One problem is the large number of untrained teachers which we now have, for these need more direction than trained and experienced teachers. Then there is the problem of teacher teamwork. The varying temperaments of teachers must be blended into some kind of unified whole to create a wholesome school atmosphere. Teachers are often hopelessly incompatible with one another unless they submit to the same commonly accepted authority of organizational procedure to guide them.

This last point is so important that we shall illustrate it with a typical example. So far as physical details are concerned, there are teachers who seem to have their feet on the ground, and others who seem to have their heads in the clouds. The "intuitive" teacher can be so absorbed with the children's states of mind that she doesn't feel the need for being exactly on time with the schedule, and is utterly unaware that the cook and the housekeeper cannot be on time unless she is too. Many good teachers are better developed in their awareness regarding other people's feelings and reactions than they are in matters of the practical everyday necessities. Such

teachers need to follow explicit directions and rules to make essential routines go smoothly so that their minds are free for their interest in human relationships. So far as the children are concerned, the physical actualities are almost as vital as the personal relations, and both must be under control at all times.

Teachers who are notably intuitive are less likely than others to be aware of the world of practical detail. On the other hand, teachers for whom the world of concrete things is at their fingertips usually miss many of the subtleties of human relationships. The intuitive teacher looks beneath the surface and senses hidden meaning and undisclosed potentialities, whereas the realistic teacher makes her appraisals on the basis of how the situation seems in cold fact. The two types never get together very well unless all aspects of a subject under discussion are covered. Each is inclined to think that her own approach is more reliable, and to discount the other approach as too limited or too imaginative. At the same time, both may vigorously deny any limitation regarding her ability or willingness to see the whole picture. Two individuals of such different types will not feel the same about a given matter because of their different ways of taking in original impressions. When asked to sit down together and to think out a problem, they encounter even greater difficulty, for each has such a characteristic way of looking at a problem that agreement cannot easily be achieved. Although a nursery school will always have teachers who clash somewhat temperamentally, that is desirable, for without such differences monotony and compulsion might set in. Good organization helps to iron out these differences and to keep them from having an unfavorable influence on the children. The nursery school needs teachers who are fully aware of concrete detail, and teachers who are gifted with intuitive insight. The combination of these two qualities is rarely found in one and the same person. However, with good organization, the highly intuitive teachers, who are so good with children, can function well in the material world because the things are well ordered and their proper uses indicated.

Organizational Problems

The first problem encountered in developing the school's organization is one of selecting the person who becomes the authority for

the organization. If an unintuitive, unfeeling, so-called practical or down-to-earth administrator makes rules and regulations that are easy for adults to follow but are of dubious value from the children's point of view, the organization may be too formal and the school will then lack that atmosphere of freedom that is so essential. On the other hand, if a predominantly imaginative person makes the rules, they probably will not be sufficiently concrete, and things will tend to be at sixes and sevens in spite of the apparent organization. Therefore, it is essential that the organizer be one who understands how to integrate into the over-all planning both the institutional needs of the school and the emotional needs of the children.

It is also important that teachers realize that the organization exists as a means to a desirable end and not as an imposition from the outside. No matter how odious rules and regulations may be to a teacher's temperament, if she is made to think through the reasoning behind the rules, usually she will accept their validity and adopt them as her own. In a way, this whole guide book is just such an effort to think through the many angles of nursery school problems in such a way that teachers can make use of the methods recommended here because they do understand, and not because some authority says so. The book further attempts to reconcile as much as possible the natural conflict between the "realistic" and the "intuitive" points of view by giving full credit and importance to both. For unless these two approaches are well interpreted in the organization of a nursery school, there will be danger of its becoming either "regimented" or "chaotic." A school's organizational set-up must be planned with these two dangers in mind. The authority for organization can be built up from various sources, but once established, that authority should be completely accepted, or teachers will not be able to work well together in one school.

Even when groups of persons such as boards or committees are considered the final authority for the nursery school organization, there must be a specific person to whom is delegated the responsibility for the administration of the school. From such a person on down, the line of authority must be clearly established. Thus, in our schools the Board of Directors and the supervisor together represent the authority for the organizational set-up, but the responsibility for the execution of all detail is delegated by the board to the Supervisor. This form of organization helps to avoid the danger of red tape on the one hand, and of irresponsibility, on the other.

Administration and Staff

Let us now turn to a discussion of the details of organization as they concern the Board of Directors, the staff, the building, the equipment and materials, the program, the children, the parents, and the records.

Board of Directors. Many nursery schools are maintained by a governing board consisting of lay persons who assume responsibility to the community and the sponsors for both the educational and the financial operation of the school. This system of management has a flexibility which public school management lacks because it consists of a small, selected group of thoroughly interested persons. A board of directors is somewhat less subject to influence from pressure groups than is a public agency. Thus, schools operated by a board of managers are likely to be either better or worse than the general run, rather than to be average. The governing board should not consist of too many persons, because a large number will never be able to attend meetings. A small, well-organized working board of ten to twenty persons who attend regular meetings and know of the work in some detail, will be more effective than a large unwieldy one. The board must hold regular meetings, of which minutes should be kept, it should elect officers once a year, and be responsible for setting policies, obtaining funds, and securing personnel.

The board should employ a trained, responsible person who is able to take complete charge of operating the school. The by-laws should state what responsibilities are delegated by the board to the director and establish the channels of procedure through which the director consults with the board or any of its members. This formality of organization makes the board responsible and gives it complete control, but excludes interference by any board member in matters which are the director's responsibility. Of course, there must exist complete agreement between the board and the director in regard to the general educational aims, the methods of discipline to be used, and the function of the school in the community. The administration of the school or system of schools and the execution of the educational policies should be left to the director with whom the board or its members consult at regular meetings or by request of either the director or a board member. Community relations must be maintained by the director and the board members as a

joint responsibility. However, the director must be kept informed at all times of any steps taken by board members so that she is always cognizant of everything that goes on. It is hardly possible to over-emphasize the importance of having all vital information coördinated in the mind of one person.

The director's work should be closely supervised by the board; board committees and officers can be delegated to do this. The treasurer should inspect the receipted bills each month and sign all checks for which the proper bills and time sheets are on record. At least one other person should be authorized to sign checks. An annual audit of the books must be made to give official assurance to the sponsors that all money has been properly handled. The treasurer should not interfere with the director's spending of money unless expenditures exceed authorized amounts. In such a case intervention by the board is necessary. The purchasing of new equipment should be delegated to the director. Setting of salaries should be done by her, subject to board approval, for the general salary policy. The board should delegate education committee members to visit the schools every three months and report to the board their findings.

The director must be authorized to make all emergency repairs to the buildings and equipment, but to make major building repairs only after approval by the board. She should be authorized to conduct all interviews and administrative correspondence with the exception of such interviews or letters as the board for specific reasons may request to have undertaken by the board or one of its members. The board should authorize the director to consult with any committee member at any time on subjects pertaining to committee work. The appointment of an executive committee of not less than three board members nor more than five makes for efficiency.

The staff consists of teachers, housekeepers, cooks, and custodians. All must know exactly what their duties are at all times. The supervisor and the head teacher must be able to deal directly with all personnel, because of the many things which need immediate attention and cannot be referred to higher authority without undue delay. No staff member except these two should make requests of other staff members for a non-routine service, except in case of emergency. All unusual or unexpected matters should be

cleared through the supervisor or the head teacher. Where custodians are under the supervision of a public school custodial department, the head teacher or supervisor must conduct dealings according to the procedures set up with such a department.

Housekeepers work under the direction of the head teacher according to a prearranged schedule. Teachers should not make requests of housekeepers to deviate from their regular schedule except through the head teacher. Otherwise the housekeepers would have too many bosses. And housekeepers must not make direct requests of teachers for changes of school routines. Such requests, too, should be made through the head teacher.

Cooks are responsible to head teachers, and not subject to direction from other teachers or the housekeeper. Cooks and head teachers together receive all deliveries of food; other staff members do so only in case of the absence of both. Where a nutritionist is employed, the cook is subject to direction from her as well as from the head teacher, and it will be necessary to decide what aspects of the work each one takes up with the cook. If, for some reason, it is thought better to have only one person supervise the cook, then it should be the nutritionist; the supervisor and head teacher should then relay comments to the cook through her.

The head teacher is directly responsible to the supervisor for all that goes on in the school. She must also be familiar with the records, though she may delegate to the assistant head teacher the major portion of record keeping. Other teachers should not keep records. Head teachers must see to it that every school duty is assigned to someone as a definite responsibility. No regular chores should be left unassigned.

The Assistant Head Teacher carries the head teacher's duties in the latter's absence, whether it be for a part of the day or for an extended absence.

The Teachers are assigned for regular hours and to definite rooms, and a change of assignment should be made only for a valid reason. Teachers consult the head teacher on all details to keep her as informed as possible about the behavior of different children, to enable proper decisions to be made, and to be familiar with the school as a whole. The teachers should have the opportunity to speak directly to the supervisor about anything, but both should try to remember to report such discussion to the head teacher so that

she is fully aware of all that goes on. It is more courteous all around to have everything clear through the head teacher, although any forgetfulness should not be interpreted as intentional.

Schedules should be written in detail for every member of the staff. This helps keep everyone clear about her duties. A written schedule is especially helpful to substitute teachers. In many cases the schedule is so simple that it is easy to keep in mind; in other cases it is more complicated and must be referred to on occasion. The following sample schedules of staff members in our schools are illustrative.

Cook's Schedule

8:00–	Signs in ready for work. Prepares breakfast and washes breakfast dishes, prepares finger paint, prepares juice and prepares lunch.
12:15–	Has lunch ready to serve. Eats her own lunch, washes dishes and cleans kitchen. Receives help with dishwashing from student teacher.
2:30–	Signs out.

Housekeeper's Schedule

8:30–	Signs in.
8:30– 9:15	Clears breakfast tables and takes dishes to kitchen. Picks up beds.
9:15–11:15	Does general cleaning of woodwork, lockers, closets, steps, and all places not cared for by custodian. Takes time out for a ten-minute rest period.
11:15–11:30	Sets food carts with table service.
11:30–12:10	Cleans off tables, set tables and eats part of her lunch.
12:10– 1:15	Sets the serving bowls of food on tables, and then puts down the beds. (Student teachers help with beds if necessary.) Removes plate service and serves dessert, clears off tables, wipes them and cleans floor under tables.
1:15– 1:30	Finishes eating her lunch.
1:30– 3:00	Cleans toilets, office, and washes bibs.
3:00– 4:00	Picks up beds, serves milk, and washes glasses.
4:00–	Signs out.

The housekeeper should eat her lunch as set forth above or else

wait until after one o'clock to do so. The later lunch hour is not good because she is likely to be hungry and tired while her duties are heaviest. However, there is not time for a complete leisurely lunch before 12:10. Therefore a divided lunch hour with coffee and dessert at 1:15 seems to be best.

A Student Teacher's Schedule

8:30– 9:00	Assists at breakfast tables.
9:00– 9:30	Yard duty.
9:30–11:30	Inside or outside activities as needed.
11:30–11:45	Outside activities.
11:45–12:15	Toileting.
12:15–12:20	Puts down beds.
12:20– 1:00	Lunch tables.
1:00– 1:30	Wipes dishes.
1:30– 2:00	Relief period.
2:00– 2:30	Conference period.
2:30– 3:00	Sleep-room.
3:00– 4:15	Indoor or outdoor activities.
4:15– 4:30	Cleans easels.

Teacher's Schedule

7:00– 8:20	Puts down beds; does health inspections; supervises rest; collects fees.
8:20– 8:30	Helps with toileting.
8:30– 8:45	Serves breakfast, inspects.
8:45–10:00	Continues inspecting, does record keeping, marks attendance and gives account to the cook.
10:00–10:15	Toilets the twos.
10:15–10:45	Supervises outside play.
10:45–11:05	Supervises rest.
11:05–11:30	Supervises outside play.
11:30–11:40	Relief period.
11:40–12:15	Supervises outdoor play, helps with toileting and takes story group.
12:15– 1:00	Serves at lunch table and helps with toileting.
1:00– 3:00	Supervises sleep-room and works on records.

The teachers' schedules need not be adhered to too rigidly. The

head teacher should not hesitate to make a change in a teacher's schedule if and when such change is beneficial. But when a teacher habitually does not follow her schedule and it is desirable to have her do so, a written one can be given her as a reminder by the head teacher, whose responsibility it is to see that schedules are followed. Where the staff is permanent and stable, and where all staff members are competent, written schedules may finally become unnecessary.

It is helpful to have a posted statement of the special duties of the opening and the closing teachers so that anyone substituting for either of them may learn exactly what she is to do. Oral instructions are too easily forgotten. Such a statement will read somewhat differently for each school, but the following samples can serve as illustrations:

Duties of the Opening Teacher

1. Unlock both doors and put padlock in the box.
2. Look for any messages left for opening teacher.
3. Light the heater in the office.
4. Air rooms.
5. Put down beds for the early morning children.
6. Answer the telephone until 8 A.M.

Duties of Closing Teacher

1. See that all lights are off and all windows are closed and locked.
2. See that all toilets are flushed.
3. Leave doll corner in order so that janitor can sweep.
4. Collect any overtime fees.
5. Write out on blackboard any messages for the opening teacher.
6. See that all outside equipment is in place.
7. Telephone to head teacher or supervisor if any child is present one hour after closing time with no word from parent.
8. Be sure to put padlock on the gate.

The Nutritionist ordinarily will not have a regular schedule. However, she must have established times for being reached daily if she is to keep in close touch with the schools.

The Physician will come on schedule if his work is so organized. If he is a private physician, he will come at times convenient to him, and the school will have to adjust to his schedule.

The Secretary to the director will serve all the schools of a given organization to some extent. She must have regular office hours, and it is necessary that she have a telephone. She must be able to act as an inter-communicating person for the schools, the head teachers, and the director. Her duties should be clearly understood by all head teachers so that they do not expect too much or too little of her. So far as organization is concerned, the secretary should have at her fingertips detailed knowledge concerning the workings of the schools. She should be a reliable and discreet person since she cannot well be excluded from knowing in considerable detail about most of the school affairs.

The Principal in a public school system will be responsible in a general way for all that goes on in the school. She (or he) will work in close contact with the head teacher and the supervisor. All repairs and the ordering of supplies and equipment will be authorized through her office. Unless the principal has had nursery school training and is as qualified as the head teacher, she should not deal directly with teachers on matters involving teaching techniques. All reports, time sheets, and records are subject to her inspection. All nursery school staff members must conform to the rules set for use of the building by the principal. The principal should make frequent visits to the nursery school at varying hours of the day. The principals should not do the scheduling of substitutes, the head teachers should do this.

The Supervisor who is strictly a technical consultant and not an administrative director must visit frequently in each school and must be readily available on the telephone. It may or may not be possible for her to keep regular office hours, but her secretary should be informed of her whereabouts at all times. All repairs, renewals, orders for new equipment, and orders for supplies should be subject to her approval, so that any contemplated changes can be made when it is most suitable. Her formal approval should be obtained for new equipment. All reports, records, and accounts should be brought to her attention even if others are responsible for making and using them. The teaching techniques are the main concern of her job. She has the main say about employment of

personnel, and shares this responsibility with the head teachers and with the director or the principal if there is one. Her recommendation for the dismissal of an employee should always be approved. Staff meetings with the supervisor must be set at intervals to be determined by the nature of the school situation. She must be able to work very closely with any person connected with the school and must not be restricted by administrative barriers from making personal contacts with any staff member or parent. Because nursery education is still in such a developmental stage, the supervisor, as a technician, must be concerned with all aspects of the school life. Her position must not be made comparable to that of regular elementary school supervisors. Where there is a managing director over the supervisor, the two must work closely together. The director need not be a technician; therefore, she should confer with the technical supervisor in any or all matters that ultimately affect the children.

The Director is responsible for the whole program. She may or may not be a technician. If she is both technician and director, then she acts as a directing supervisor or supervising director. The Golden Gate Nursery Schools have such a person in charge. Besides having all the duties of the supervisor as just given, she is responsible for all buying, for the bookkeeping, for the making of repairs and improvements, and for the maintaining of public relations. The single nursery school which is not attached to any public school or nursery school organization usually has such a director, who also does part-time teaching. It is always better if the director is also a technician, but technicians with the capacity to direct a large program are not readily available. Where the director is untrained, he or she and the technical supervisor should become a team to do the work in close coöperation. The technical aspects must not be subordinated to the financial and administrative affairs or the program will suffer. One technical administrative director is always preferable, whether it is for a single school, for a small system of schools, or for a statewide system. A technical director can, with the assistance of a good bookkeeper and a purchasing agent, coördinate the work better than an administrator who knows little about nursery education.

A director should spend considerable time in the schools and learn from direct contact what the work is all about. The papers

that pass over the desk of the director will then represent familiar realities rather than administrative abstractions. Regular, even if infrequent, meetings of the director with all staff members should take place to keep top and bottom tied together into one whole. A non-technical director should not interfere with teaching techniques nor try to give advice directly to teachers. Such interest should be expressed to the technical supervisor or the head teacher, if there is no technical supervisor.

Student teachers with us are scheduled as regular teachers except that they are not assigned to the early part of the nap period in their first weeks. This is because the children do not go to sleep readily with strangers. However, they are not left alone with more than a few children until they are familiar with them and able to handle the situation. They do not stand apart and just observe, nor are they given any chores to do other than during the nap period. They immediately participate in the full day's program. They are scheduled for one half hour of conference each day with staff members who discuss their work with them. Their reading is done on their own, outside of school time, and they are given written examinations on procedures and methods periodically.

Plant and Equipment

Buildings should be systematically cleaned and kept in good repair. A schedule for cleaning should include the whole building with some places, such as the toilets, to be cleaned twice daily; other places, such as store rooms, to be cleaned once a month or as the situation may require. Where evidence of rats or mice is found, exterminating service should be obtained at once. Plumbing defects should be promptly reported to the person who authorizes repairs. Broken windows, locks, defects in heating equipment or other potential fire hazards must be reported by the head teacher to the proper person. The supervisor should check and see that such matters are reported and attended to. The fire extinguishers must be refilled once a year or oftener. There must be on hand a supply of extra fuses and light bulbs, and information about location of fuse boxes and the shut-off valve for the water system should be posted on the staff bulletin board. Instructions for control of heating equipment should also be posted. It is the job of the head teacher and the assistant head teacher to see to it that the teachers

keep the rooms at a comfortable temperature and well ventilated, and all teachers should be instructed as to what is the appropriate temperature and suitable ventilation. They must see that there is good lighting at all times with the proper use of blinds, shades and electricity. Such things can, by being everyone's responsibility, easily come to be no one's responsibility, and they should be delegated in a definite fashion unless the head teacher can look out for them herself.

A general appearance of orderliness and cleanliness improves the character of the whole building. The head teacher ought to check frequently and see that shades are kept at even heights; see that teachers working venetian blind cords use two hands to prevent one cord end from getting out of reach; that pictures hang straight; that dead flowers are thrown out; that the tops of the lockers are cleared off at all times; and that clothes are in the lockers and not on the floor. All these little attentions help to keep the place attractive. A nursery school should show at all times that the difference between avoidable and unavoidable disorder is well understood. There is no need ever to put miscellaneous things on top of the lockers, cupboards or pianos, but some teachers can be broken of this bad habit only by consistent supervision.

The display of children's paintings should not be an eyesore, but should be esthetically pleasing as to placement as well as in themselves. Picture-framing stores will give schools old mats, for which they have no use, for mounting children's pictures. No teachers should be allowed to hang any picture, other than on the display bulletin boards, without the consent of the head teacher, who should consider carefully the hanging of a permanent or semi-permanent picture. Where rooms are used by so many people for such long days, it is particularly desirable to have the principles of good interior decoration followed. The average teacher rarely has the training or the natural good taste to "decorate" a schoolroom. A person who is competent to advise teachers on esthetic matters should be found. The arrangement of a schoolroom can be esthetically pleasing as well as functional.

Tables grouped near each other make the supervision of both activities and the serving of lunch easier. When lockers are along walls where least seen, one eyesore is eliminated. After the spaces for doll play and lockers are marked off, the remaining space should

be kept cleared for floor play and for the beds at nap time. It is important to have one clear section of floor space large enough to take all beds without moving any furniture.

The tables should always be placed where the light is good. Unless the windows have venetian blinds, the tables should not go where direct sunlight falls on them, for while light-colored window shades can be drawn to shut out bright sun, drawing dark shades excludes too much light. Racks or dollies for cots, and blanket cupboards are no pleasure to look at; they should be inconspicuously placed. Cupboards are better than screens for making doll corners. If all the equipment and furniture is placed with an eye to line and mass, the result will be a room more pleasing to work in. The use of good colors for walls and furniture will do even more for a room. Even the unsightly appearance of lockers or cabinets can be offset if they are painted the same color as the walls. There is such a noticeable response from teachers and children to a nursery school room which is beautifully colored, that every effort should be made by those interested in nursery schools to see that high standards for interior decoration be set, for many existing schools could be called dismal.

Color schemes for walls and equipment should be neither too light and perishable, nor too dark and dreary. One color scheme here given has been used in many schools and proved to be very satisfactory because it "goes" with everything. The colors of a well-decorated room must blend with each other as well as be pleasing in themselves. Since the color of the floor is usually fixed, as a rule it must be the guide for choosing the rest of the colors. Yellow-green walls, woodwork, and furniture will enhance a floor of any color except blue-green. A good yellow-green is made by mixing medium chrome yellow and medium chrome green into white and adding enough raw sienna to soften the color and make it harmonize with the muddy or unclear colors of floors, clothing, and furniture. No color accommodates so many others as a yellow-green mixed with a little raw sienna. A light shade of it for the walls, a dark one for woodwork, lockers, and cupboards, makes a cheerful room. When used in a dark shade, it covers brown woodwork with one coat, and remains alive without being garish. With it, all other colors except blue-green look well in furniture, pictures, and children's clothes. In such a room either orange or red

can be used, although they cannot be used together. In fact, almost any shade of blue, red, black, brown, tan, maroon, yellow and purple can be used in a yellow-green room. Not more than one shade or tone of blue, red, yellow, or purple should be used in one room. In a large school, the yellow-green can be used for all, or nearly all, the walls, the woodwork, and for movable cupboards that are to be used in more than one room. Different rooms in such a building can have variety if other colors are used for tables, chairs, lockers, cupboards, easels. Since brown is a color that cannot be eliminated in most schools, a color scheme which plays up to it is a great asset. Combinations such as dull orange, blue, brown, and yellow; red, blue, brown, and yellow; or rose, blue, brown, and yellow are good with yellow-green. In using the above color schemes, one should take care to see that the colors are not absolutely clear or brilliant. They should be dulled with a little lamp black so that they become soft and harmonious. Strong clear colors straight from the can are not as decoratively beautiful as those mixed to fit the actual situation. Softened colors give an appearance of brightness and clearness, but will not be garish.

Another color scheme that is good where the floor is tan, blue, or chrome green, is made up of the four primary colors: walls, ceilings and woodwork can be yellow, furniture and cupboards Chinese red, Christmas green, or deep blue. With this color scheme, the choosing of the colors for the cupboards must be carefully done. There are other good color schemes for nursery schools but few that will harmonize with the many things whose color cannot be changed; the yellow-green scheme is the only one that will do this without fail.

We should not use white, pink, baby blue, light grey or tan in nursery school because they are so much less desirable than other colors. Even in light shades, blue-green is not as attractive a color as yellow or yellow-green. Those light colors are not only perishable, but they give also a feeling of stage walls and do not hold the room together, because these shades cannot harmonize with the colors in the children's clothes, the floor, the human skin, and in toys and furniture. To paint chairs and tables in pastel shades is a mistake, because they never look clean after the first few weeks. A room is bright and pretty when its coloring is harmonious, not because it is painted in light colors. Colors that are beautiful in

themselves do not beautify a room unless they belong together. Both children and adults react to color and become depressed or feel comfortable in a room according to the color scheme. Yellow and red are favorite colors of all children, soft yellow-green is nature's color and is liked by almost everyone in large quantities because nature has accustomed our eyes to it. Blue and purple are colors to use with restraint. Blue-green and aqua keep company only with a very few other colors and therefore must be used singly in such places as toilets or storerooms.

Unsupervised painting of walls or equipment by teachers is not a good thing. All amateur painting should be done by qualified and experienced amateurs under the supervision of someone who knows how to mix paint, how to prepare surfaces for paint, how to apportion the gloss and how to insure harmonious use of color. When there is no one on the staff who knows all this, someone should be found who can give this supervision for the school. Nothing should be painted until the general color scheme is decided upon. Odds and ends of paint should be used up on outdoor equipment. Enamels should not be used straight, but should be diluted with flat oil paint. Teachers and supervisors should resist school maintenance departments which go about with just one color in which they want to paint everything — unless that color is yellow-green. The painting of cupboards, doll furniture, chairs, and tables must be done in colors which not only harmonize, but also help build pleasing effects with line and mass. Rooms must be kept clean by the housekeeper and the janitor in such a fashion as to protect the paint. Strong soaps, dirty mops, and unnecessary washing and rubbing must be avoided.

Equipment and materials must be kept clean, in good repair, and in the right location. Lockers and cupboards must be washed at least once a week with warm water, but little if any soap. Chairs and tables must be wiped off daily, the beds once a week. The easels should be washed thoroughly clean as a daily affair, and the piano whenever necessary; the blocks rarely need washing if the floors are kept clean. Teachers should watch that chairs of the right height are at the tables. All broken equipment should be put in a definite place to be available to the repairman, and must not be left in the room where further use would mean further breakage. Equipment must be put away properly at night with teachers' time

scheduled for this work. Every other morning one teacher should go about the yard with a hammer and pliers to pound in any loose nails and to tighten any loose bolts on equipment. Sand should be ordered before it is all gone. If extra sacks of sand are on hand, sand boxes can be kept full. The head teacher should see to it that dress-up clothes are kept clean; that dirty stuffed animals are cleaned or thrown away; that the bulletin boards are both timely and tidy; that pencils are available in each room, by the telephone, and at the office desk; that her desk is organized so that others can find things on it, including all forms; that bulletins for parents are available; and that all supplies are either in stock or on order in good time. The head teacher sees to it that student teachers or volunteers keep the mending done, cut newsprint to easel sizes, mend books, straighten cupboards, and iron finger paintings.

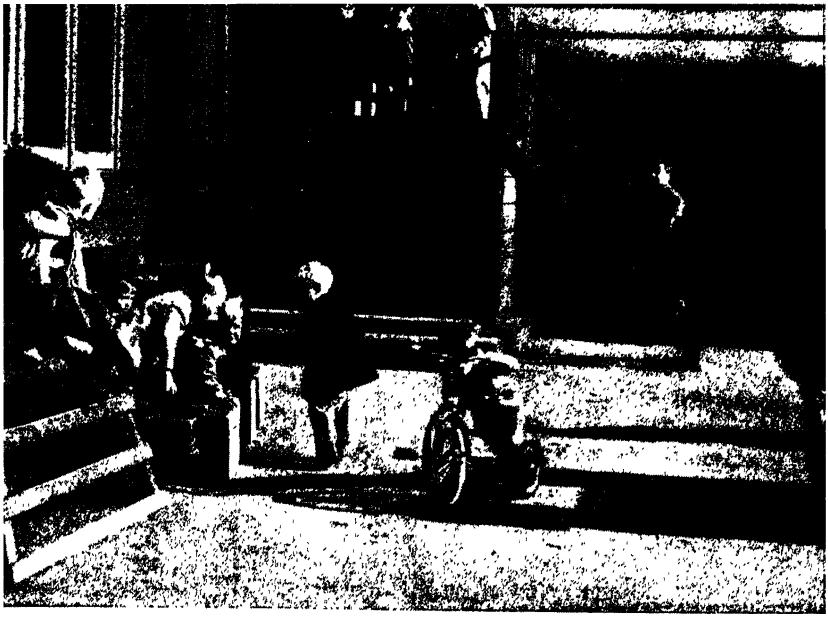
The Program

The program will flow smoothly only when it is well organized. Foremost for the program is the need to schedule enough teachers for each portion of the day. This will vary from school to school depending upon the nature of the parents' work and upon how many children come very early or stay very late. The head teacher should preferably come not later than 8 o'clock so that she will be present for the main part of the day. Any teacher who has become familiar with the children can be trained to do the morning inspection, but frequent changes or rotations in the early morning duty are not too good. However, at least two teachers in a school should know how to do the inspection and be able to get good coöperation for it from parents and children. Rescheduling of teachers because of staff absence is the job of the head teacher. When it involves a possibility of personality conflicts, of resistance from teachers, or of inadequate supervision, the supervisor should be consulted for advice. The program should never be altered because of teacher absence. This would cause more difficulties than proceeding with the regular program in spite of staff shortage, for the program represents the basic organization around which everything else is built. The program should be altered only upon the advice and with the consent of the supervisor, and this should be given only in extreme cases, for when the program is tampered with, all other aspects of

the school life suffer. It is the one steady keel to cling to every day. Therefore a change in the school's program should be made only after thorough discussion and evaluation. This point cannot be overstressed.

The children are automatically organized by falling in with the school's organization. They come to do certain things at certain times quite by themselves because the adults and the environment are consistent in their demands. For example, the child tends to open his mouth for inspection without being told to do so, or he hangs his coat in the locker without specific instruction to that effect. Each day he will do many things approximately the same way as on every other day because the stimulus to do so is the same each day. If it were not for the children's ability to respond to the same stimulus in more or less the same fashion each time, we could not have nursery school at all. It is necessary to expect that certain responses will come from the children quickly and automatically, and nothing guarantees this better than the stability and regularity of the stimuli. This does not mean regimentation, because the nursery school teacher does not insist upon rigid uniformity of responses but instead is satisfied with reasonably adequate reactions.

Our school day is divided into periods of two kinds — one for activities or free play, and one for routines. We never speak of supervised play because the playing as well as the sleeping, eating, and everything else the children do is at all times supervised. During the play periods from 9:30 to 11:45 and after the nap to the end of the day, the children are free to go from one activity to another as they wish, and their behavior is not directed or channeled into any one kind of play. That is what is meant by free play. We refer to such times as the activity periods because of the differentiated activities carried on at such times. At all other times of the day the children's situation is highly directed and organized toward sleeping, eating, resting, or toileting, which we call "routines" as contrasted with "activities." When one sees how little time can be called the children's own, or how little activity time is provided in the nursery school day, it becomes evident that excursions, directed games, or special events that call for complete coöperation and attention are likely to require too much organization. Especially does this seem true when we realize that even the free play time is one where all the restrictions and rules covering proper use of equipment and materials must be respected. Children thrive on



Tree house with toy shed underneath.

Waiting turns for the new merry-go-rou

om Weber





Tom W





Children like and need equipment that permits individual movement and uses large muscles.

Plenty of enclosed play space to put adequate equipment makes for a good school.

Two-year-olds enjoy watching each other

Wheel toys must be strong enough to take considerable mistreatment. Irregular use of equipment promotes sociability and coöperation, but proper use of toys must constantly be encouraged by teachers to prolong their usefulness.



routine and regularity of the right kind, and the school which has good organization and benign discipline gives the child a stable environment which helps him, on his part, to organize his naturally chaotic impulses. By helping him to integrate some of his random responses into purposeful actions, we make it possible for him to develop the kind of behavior which society expects of him. But we must guard carefully against demanding a level of achievement or behavior of which he is not yet capable.

Grouping of children into classrooms can present certain difficulties. Where children as young as two and as old as five are enrolled in one school, they should be separated into three instead of into two groups for activities, sleeping, and outdoor play. Where a school has only two rooms, the admission age range should be restricted, eliminating either the young twos or the fives, so that the school will not have an age spread of more than thirty-six months. A one-room school for a wider age spread than two years ought not to be tolerated, for both the oldest and the youngest children would suffer. The older ones are mean to the younger ones, and they tend to become regressively imitative of the babies. They also feel frustrated because they cannot be allowed to be as aggressive as when they are in their own age group. Fives are hard enough to manage as a group, but when put together with twos, they are usually very difficult.

In the four-session school all children are assigned to age level rather than to session groups. It is simpler in a large school to have those who go home at one o'clock eat in one room by themselves, all ages together, but seated at at least two tables of different heights. If the one o'clock children are separated, there is no interference with the preparation of the room for nap time. In a small school, the one o'clock children eat with the other children and then go to the office or to the reading table until they are called for.

The chapter on finances shows that a school for less than 60 children has higher per capita costs. Experience has shown that a school for 80 to 100 children can be quite satisfactory if it is well organized, and properly housed and equipped. The children are never all together; they stay with their own room group. No more children than are enrolled in two rooms are ever in the yard at once and then only from 9:00 to 9:30, and from 11:30 to 12:00. At other times only a portion of the children from each room are ever in the yard. In other words, a large number of children

enrolled in a school does not necessarily lead to overcrowding; and a school for 20 is overcrowded when there is not enough indoor and outdoor space for that many children.

A maximum of 25 two-year-olds in one room should be maintained; for threes, fours, and fives a maximum of 30 should be adhered to. Thus, a school with two rooms of equal size would have 20 twos in one room and 30 threes and fours in the other room; or 25 older twos and young threes in one room, and 25 older threes and fours in the other room; or 30 fours in one room and 30 fives in the other. The suitability of space as well as per capita area has to be considered in fixing enrollment quotas.

The quotas for each session in each room must be set with regard to the income needed from tuitions, the community educational demand, and the numbers the various room groups can accommodate with the scheduled staff. The number of "extra" morning children that can be served depends upon whether or not they are behavior problems, and upon how many other behavior-problem children are enrolled for the longer sessions. In a climate where children can be out of doors a great deal, the number of children coming from 9:30 to 11:30 can be increased, but the capacity of the lunch tables must, of course, determine the number who can stay on for lunch.

Parents and Visitors must be organized so that the school can maintain good relations with them. This subject is more fully dealt with in the chapter on Parents. Visitors are frequent in our schools. The supervisor, head teacher, or assistant head teacher gives as much attention as possible to them. We have no written instructions for visitors, and do not object to their talking to the children, since we feel that the situation should be kept a natural one, and we believe that children enjoy and benefit from contact with strangers — with men particularly. Visitors are always welcome, with or without appointment. We think that part of our task as educators is to help the public to understand our work. Rarely are visitors a nuisance if they are treated in a friendly casual way, and not looked upon as possible disturbers of the peace.

Reports to supervisor or main office should be made by the head teacher or the assistant head teacher. Monthly reports to the city health department should be made by the teacher who takes the roll. A desk diary for registering names of visitors, special events,

or interesting remarks can be useful for hunting up data to document a story, but it is not essential to organization. The staff blackboard, however, and the one for parents should be constantly in use.

A time sheet is kept by each staff member. Her signature at the top is her statement that it is correct; the head teacher's signature is required as endorsement, and the supervisor's OK is the authorization for the bookkeeper to make payment accordingly. Our regulations for the time sheets are as follows:

1. Time sheets are signed at the time of arriving and at the time of leaving for exact time (within five minutes) according to the school clock.
2. Total hours for day, week, and month are entered by each staff member, but checked by head teacher for accuracy before being signed by her.
3. When a person is absent because of illness, the word "illness" is written in, followed by "S.L." if she claims sick leave pay. The bookkeeper later checks this to see whether or not all paid sick leave time has already been used up.
4. Vacation absence must be marked "Vacation" in order to be paid for. All other absences should be noted simply by the word "Absent"; holidays by writing in the word.
5. Staff members must sign out and in again if they leave the premises during working hours.
6. Teachers are not paid for time after 6 P.M. unless they are kept for a child who remains overtime, so time sheets should be signed for no later hour, except for a late child.
7. Absences may not be made up by doing overtime unless overtime is requested by head teachers; therefore, no unauthorized extra time may be shown.

Paydays for the year should be posted so that everyone knows when to expect payment, especially when payday comes on a Saturday or Sunday. The number of work days and legal holidays should also be posted; for example, the calendar was as follows for 1948: January, 21 days; February, 20 days; March, 23 days; April, 22 days; May, 21 days; June, 22 days; July, 21 days; August, 22 days; September, 21 days; October, 21 days; November, 21 days; December, 23 days; total, 258 days. Legal holidays: January 1, May 31, July 5, September 6, and November 25.

Summary

To the reader who looks back on the contents of the present chapter, it will be evident that the problems of organization are difficult for two reasons. One is that the multiplicity of detail makes it hard to manage a nursery school efficiently and with harmony. The second is that educational and psychological implications are inherent in all the mechanics of nursery school life. To get staff agreement on the educational significance of any given detail is not always easy. The so-called authorities in the field of nursery school education are not in agreement among themselves. Nowhere is this more evident than in matters of organization, where so often the argument against any well-thought-out plan runs somewhat like this: "It doesn't matter so much what happens to the children and the teachers so long as everybody feels good." And when one asks what methods are used for learning how people feel, one finds that reference is made to vague, subjective, and highly personalized judgments of a few individuals.

Organization is not always liked even by good nursery school teachers who prefer to be guided in practical matters by inner impulses rather than outer stimuli. But such teachers usually become enthusiasts for organization when they are given the opportunity to work in a school that is thoughtfully organized toward educational rather than administrative goals. For they come to see that the only way a person can be free to act in any situation is when the limitations of that situation are well understood and fully accepted. The whole purpose of nursery school organization is to stabilize and perfect the environment so that children are safe, well supervised, and free to play and learn. In our highly technological society, which is regulated by schedules of all kinds and organized in the smallest details of many of its aspects, the nursery school cannot possibly escape the necessity of thorough organization. And those who feel that they have a justifiable grudge against the overorganization of modern life should not carry their protest so far as to negate this basic necessity.

Selected Reading

See first four books of Bibliography for Chapter 1.

6

Staff

THE STAFF of a nursery school will depend upon the purpose for which the school is organized and upon the availability of qualified personnel. Thus, besides teachers, a housekeeper, and a cook, a school could have a doctor, a nurse, a dietitian, a psychologist, a speech specialist, a research worker, a supervisor, and an administrator. In schools such as ours, only four types of workers besides the school physician are essential: supervisory, teaching, cooking, and cleaning. One supervisor is in charge of all of the Golden Gate schools, each of which has a head teacher, an assistant head teacher, several regular teachers, a cook, a housekeeper, and a janitor. Let us consider the qualifications and duties of persons suitable for these positions under present day conditions.

SUPERVISORY STAFF

The supervisor's work may be divided into technical and administrative aspects. One person may do both or a technical consultant may work under an administrative head. Where one person has complete responsibility, many demands will be made upon her skills and abilities. She must know children, like and enjoy their company and preferably should be a mother herself. She must have had considerable experience as a nursery school teacher, know the literature of child development, and be familiar with the dynamics of child behavior. She must be the type of person who never forgets

that the children's needs and interests come first. She must meet the approval of her employers, for otherwise it will be difficult for her to get the coöperation and loyalty of her employees necessary for the good functioning of the school. A supervisor must give considerable of her personal time because her problems cannot all be settled in office hours, and she has to attend many professional and staff meetings in the evening. Therefore, a person who does not have confining home interests is better able to stand the stress and strain of the manifold responsibilities of the supervisor's job. Needless to say, a supervisor's health must be excellent. She should herself know how to do any of the tasks in the school such as cooking, housekeeping, and teaching, and know well the details involved in the school techniques. She must give specific answers to questions and make decisions about all details when called upon to do so. She will have to write reports and keep suitable records about the work of the schools, and she must be able to interpret the needs of the schools to the school's governing body and to explain their significance to the community as a whole. If it is up to the supervisor to make decisions about the repairs and improvements of the buildings, she should know something about plumbing, electrical work, and general repairing.

Above all, the supervisor must be a mature person and have enough emotional stability to deal constructively with disturbed personalities among parents, teachers, and children. It is very unlikely that anyone who meets all these qualifications should not have at least an A.B. degree, but degrees are not as important as abilities. An administrative supervisor must be a good organizer because there is always more to be done than will ever get finished in the day's work, and she must be able to determine which of the things can be postponed and which require immediate attention. There is little opportunity to plan one's day, because too many urgent and unexpected things come up all the time. The administrative supervisor is responsible for all organization, reports, ordering of supplies, and the broad direction of the program. She will usually share with the technical supervisor the hiring and firing of all personnel, but it will be the technical supervisor who is responsible for the educational program as it is carried out through the use of certain equipment, materials, and techniques. In the Golden Gate Nursery Schools the supervisor is both technical

and administrative and is responsible for all the work of the organization. This involves hiring of personnel; supervising of teaching, housekeeping, and cooking – directly, as well as through the head teachers; buying of all equipment; placing of all wholesale orders for food and supplies; passing on admission of all children; conducting of staff meetings and meetings for parents and teachers; consulting with parents on their individual problems; maintaining public relations with the coöperation of members of the Board of Directors; supervising the training course for the student nurses; writing all correspondence, reports, and bulletins; making monthly oral and written reports to the Board of Directors; and conferring with many visitors interested in nursery education.

Teaching Staff

Head teachers. The qualifications for a head teacher are the same as those for other teachers, plus a few other important requirements. She must know the dynamics of child behavior, and herself be one of the best if not the best teacher in the school. But she must also be able to take responsibility for the management and direction of adults as well as of children. She will often be called upon to give considerable personal time, and must be willing to work a ten- or eleven-hour day occasionally if necessary. She must be approved by, and give approval to, the supervisor and be able to win the respect and loyalty of her teachers. Her superior teaching ability should make it possible for her to help younger teachers develop. She must have considerable emotional stability and maturity. A background that reflects educational and cultural advantages is necessary, an A.B. degree highly desirable.

The head teacher's duties are numerous for she is responsible for all that happens in the school, and she must report to her supervisor the needs of the school in such a way as to get the best support. In addition to teaching, there are special functions which she or the assistant head teacher perform. In our schools the head teacher takes the early morning schedule and the assistant head teacher the late afternoon schedule; so that between them they see and know all parents. Together they are responsible for all interviews with visitors, applications for admission of children, keeping of records and reports, payment of fees, and instruction and guid-

ance of the student teachers, cooks, and housekeepers. While both are on duty, the head teacher is in charge. Whenever she is absent or not on duty, the assistant head teacher is in charge and performs the head teacher's functions. The head teacher makes requests for repairs, conducts all visitors through the school, approves all purchases made from "petty cash," supervises the care of laundry, makes reports to the central office, takes care of all the children's minor injuries or allocates the care to someone after the injury is reported to her, makes occasional home visits, approves any necessary menu changes, consults with teachers on behavior problems, and holds conferences with student teachers.

Teachers, of course, must like the children and enjoy their company; they must have sufficient emotional stability and maturity as well as the ability to give consistent supervision. They should have a lively interest in learning further about the dynamics of children's behavior and about nursery school techniques. A well-balanced attitude toward authority is of critical importance to the teacher for success in a situation in which she must constantly accept the authority of the organization, the supervisor, the head teacher, and assistant head teacher, and yet at the same time make up her own mind about many things and act with proper authority in relation to the children. A pleasing personality and nice appearance are invaluable assets, and without good health the teacher will be unable to keep a good attendance record. Needless to say, a good attendance record is the first requirement of a teacher.

College nursery school training and experience is sometimes an asset and sometimes not, for academic training can make teachers too inflexible to meet the situation in a given school where theories and practices differ from those in which she was trained. However, the question of training is largely theoretical, because the number of available trained teachers is negligible and the number of available teaching positions great. Since it is not possible to secure adequate personnel for any system by considering only college trained applicants, our association chooses applicants on a basis of likely promise that they will make good in the schools. Some well-organized nursery school systems with good supervisors and head teachers prefer training their own teachers. A trial period of teaching is practically the only way of telling whether or not an applicant is "promising." Anyone who really likes chilren, and is intelli-

gent, flexible, and mature, may possibly become a good teacher. Women over fifty and under twenty, those with a speech defect, or with excessive home duties, and those who live long distances from school are not given trial periods. We employ a mother with a child of nursery school age only if it is possible to put her child in a group completely separated from the group in which she teaches. Some of our best teachers are mothers with preschool age children. Mothers of children somewhat older are preferred because they are less likely to be absent from school due to a child's illness.

Since the teachers are the lifeblood of the school, much needs to be said about their qualifications, to which we shall return later. Upon them falls the responsibility of directing all the behavior of the children toward desirable ends. What they say or do makes the day happy or otherwise. The teacher's specific techniques are discussed elsewhere; here we state only what her specific duties are as contrasted with those of other staff members. These duties are to supervise all of the indoor and outdoor play, eating, toileting, and sleeping. She helps keep materials in condition, the room in order, and occasionally she does a little housework or handling of beds if the housekeeper is absent. She does not assume any of the responsibilities assigned to the head teacher or assistant head teacher unless, by some chance, both should be absent from school. Each classroom has a "room teacher" who is responsible for coördinating the work of the teachers and student teachers in her room, and for reporting to the head teacher the need for any materials or supplies.

Domestic Staff

Cook. The qualifications for the cook are, first of all, that she be an agreeable person, like children, and like the job. No matter how well she cooks, if she is a "sourpuss," the school feels the effect of it. She must be willing to follow directions carefully and do the kind of cooking we want in nursery school. She must have had some cooking experience, and have a knack for making foods taste right. She should be neat, clean, and healthy, as well as able to attend regularly.

Her duties are to prepare breakfast and lunch and to wash the dishes, although the student teachers help with the noon dishes. She buys food as delegated by the head teacher; she assists the

housekeeper in bringing food to the table and in cleaning up afterwards whenever this is necessary. She keeps the kitchen clean, including the floor. However, she never works with the children in any way whatsoever.

The housekeeper has to be agreeable, willing to take directions, and young and strong enough to do the work. She must also like children. Her duties are dusting, setting the lunch table and serving the lunch, cleaning the toilets, doing light laundry, placing the cots on the floor for naps, and removing them to their racks after the nap is over. Housekeepers, like cooks, never do any teaching.

The janitor, too, should like the children. No matter how competent anyone in nursery school seems to be, unless there is a genuine natural liking for children on the part of all the adults, friction and conflict will arise. The custodians must feel, as well as everyone else, that the children's interests come first, and they must willingly accept not only the heavy work and cleaning that is made necessary by hard use of the facilities all day, but also that caused by inevitable misuse. Again, the janitor or janitress must be strong enough to do the heavy work.

Distribution of Duties

As you will note, we do not have any nursery school "aides" or persons who do various odd jobs around the school. In our schools all tasks are assigned to teachers, housekeepers, cooks, and janitors. Although the formal educational requirements regarding cooks, housekeepers, and teachers are not very different, a sharp distinction is made between the educational, cultural, personal and temperamental qualifications of the teachers and those of the other staff members who do not work directly with the children. So long as it is impossible to get enough teachers with adequate educational backgrounds, it is very important that we select persons otherwise suitable for teaching. We make a distinction between working directly with the children and, working for them. Every contact between a child and an adult, whether it takes place in the toilet room, in the sleep-room, or during the eating period, is an important learning situation for the child, and he should be supervised by a teacher — not by a cook, housekeeper, or custodian. Whereas it does not hurt the children to have teachers occasionally do the

work of housekeepers and cooks (unless the children are thereby neglected), it may be injurious for them if housekeepers, and cooks do the work of teachers, because they lack the qualifying experience. Teachers should not be burdened with chores such as picking up beds, setting the lunch table, washing dishes or sweeping the floor. Their full energy should go to the children. Housekeepers and cooks have heavy responsibilities which take concentration and physical effort and they should not be required to stop and "mind a child" no matter how willing they are to do so. Where lines of duty are not well adhered to by all staff members, it is usually a sign that someone carries too heavy a load and that someone else does a little shirking.

All staff members must have "old-fashioned" standards of honesty about putting in the full time for which they are paid; be under no temptation to pilfer supplies, and have an appropriate feeling of loyalty to the school and the people with whom they work. They must be able to pass a health examination required by the Board of Health and, to repeat, the attendance record must be a good one for all staff members. They should believe in the purpose for which the school is organized and their work should give them the feeling that the school is serving that purpose properly.

Selection and Training of Teaching Staff

Anyone who has worked in public nursery schools during the last four years knows how difficult it has been to secure an adequate staff for a single school, let alone a group of them, for the general social and economic conditions have had a disturbing influence on the organization and maintenance of any institution. To secure good cooks and housekeepers has been much easier than to obtain good teachers. Women with little if any training have had to step into crowded classrooms with disturbed children milling around, try to keep them occupied with meager equipment and materials, and overnight try to become skilled teachers. While many did a wonderful job, a larger number found themselves ill equipped, either temperamentally or technically, to deal with the situation. The turnover was great. In 1944, in Vallejo, the average length of stay of teachers hired that year was fifty-four days. Fortunately, a staff of persons previously engaged, held the schools together.

In the sixty-nine years that the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association has provided education for the preschool child, many methods have come and gone, but the underlying psychology has always been child-centered. Techniques have varied through influences from Froebel to Freud, but values have been constant. To care for and educate children by using the best technical methods known has always been the organization's task. Due to its beginning under the influence of the Froebelians, it has always been concerned with the spiritual meaning of child behavior, and the development of the child's spirit as well as his mind and body. The technical ways of guiding children have varied as educational custom has changed, but the underlying concept that teaching is an art as well as a skill has never even been questioned. When making staff selections, so far as choice is possible, this idea must be borne in mind. All teachers coming into the schools today find it necessary to become well acquainted both with the techniques we use and with the philosophy under which we operate. The first weeks of service are therefore a kind of training period for all new teachers. Our student teachers are student nurses from local hospitals who also take this training.

The question of teacher training involves the question of how much "understanding" we should give teachers so that they can make their own decisions about details and thus function well in the art of teaching; and how much practice in actual detail should be given to make them more efficient as technicians, for the good teacher is an artist who handles her medium (techniques) skillfully. A poor teacher may be an artist with little technical skill, or she may be a superb technician who has no "feel" for the creative side of teaching, which is her art. Nowhere is this a more controversial issue than in the field of nursery school teacher training.

Every teacher must work within the limitations of the buildings, equipment, materials, and program of the school where she teaches. To the extent that she masters these mechanical matters, she will have energy free for the creative side. When there is no system, no uniformity, or no regulated procedure, the result is confusion for all. The school will run smoothly to the extent that it has a good staff and is organized. Its spirit and atmosphere are the test of its educational worth. No teacher will blossom as an artist in a disorganized school, though she may be able to function creditably no

matter how badly things are put together. The art of teaching may be nine-tenths innate and not "taught" or "learned," but the techniques of teaching are nine-tenths acquired by observation, study, and practice in application. The skillful teacher is one who has learned techniques on a foundation of already existing artistic ability, even if this was undiscovered until she worked in the nursery school.

Any woman who wishes to become a nursery school teacher must ask herself the following questions:

1. Do I really enjoy the society of children?
2. Do I like this school, its general atmosphere and management?
3. Am I willing to take responsibility for guiding the children?
4. Will I assume this responsibility by always showing up for work, unless I am ill, or unable to attend because a conflicting responsibility (not pleasure) keeps me away?
5. Am I doing this work primarily because I like it, rather than because the pay is pretty good for me and I don't have to prove my abilities?
6. Am I interested in learning more about nursery education, child behavior, and my own personality qualities as revealed in my work?
7. Can I take criticism of myself and my work, and do I try to profit from it rather than defend myself or my position?

If the answers are "Yes" to all these questions, the applicant can become a successful teacher. If instead she is teaching because she is just curious about children, or thinks she is doing some noble bit to help meet the teacher shortage; if she is just filling in some spare time and thinks that she can stay home from school whenever she likes because she knows other teachers will double up; if she feels it is the parents' responsibility to "train" children and hers only to look after them while they are in school; if she feels she can shirk her share because some of the other teachers are good; if she works because she earns more money than she would doing anything else; if she wonders whether nursery school "experts" really know any more than she does, and doesn't want any personal criticisms when she is doing the best she can, feeling that the school should

be grateful to have her around – if this is her attitude, then she will probably find nursery school teaching an unrewarding experience.

Teaching Techniques and Theories

If, however, a beginning teacher has good attitudes and is willing to work hard, she can learn the techniques used in our schools and can also develop some artistic flourish. And there is no more rewarding or maturing experience for a woman than that which comes from successful association with children. The book may be somewhat confusing to teachers rigidly trained in other techniques, which are based on a differing philosophy. Our psychological approach is that of dynamic behavior rather than just measurable growth. Our pupil-teacher ratio is higher than that of many colleges and teacher-training institutions. Much of the literature of nursery education comes from the Institutes of Child Development at Minnesota, California, Iowa, and Columbia, where research has been emphasized and staff-pupil ratios are low. The teacher-training schools, such as the Nursery Training School of Boston and the Coöperative School for Student Teachers in New York, have likewise had low ratios and conditions of exceptional teaching ability of staff. Coöperative nursery schools have untrained mothers, but in such large numbers as to permit casual practice of recommended techniques. This approach is based on schools operated solely for children on as economical a basis as is possible with an all-paid staff of relatively untrained teachers.

With the coming of a public program, training will have to be geared to a new ratio and to untrained teachers who must learn on the job until more training facilities are developed. Technicians must work to develop the new techniques needed. The Golden Gate Nursery Schools are now experimenting with and demonstrating certain acceptable techniques. Certainly they are not the final answer to all questions. However, they are not something which, like Topsy, just grew. They have been carefully thought out and developed as a result of conditions brought about by the war with the best coöperative efforts of the Board of Directors, the Supervisor, and the Staff of the Golden Gate Nursery Schools and the Staff of the Vallejo Nursery Schools over a period of four years. They represent one way: they do not claim to be the only possible

one. Teachers who do not find answers in the books on techniques developed in research center schools may find some answers here. The field is actually just opening up and an expanding program will provide opportunity to develop new methods as needed on a basis of actual experience. At the risk of being accused of giving many answers too didactically, the material is presented here on a take-it-or-leave-it basis. Trained nursery school experts already know answers which they are applying in schools under their supervision, and they may not feel the need of most of this material; but today untrained, inexperienced teachers are responsible for making programs and giving answers, and they are constantly looking to the experienced people for guidance. This is not an effort to "sell" any set of procedures or techniques. It is a concise "do-and-don't" of what "works" in our schools, and what our student teachers must know and try to do.

Some may find the instructions "too detailed," others may be grateful for the specifics. There are teachers who say it doesn't matter how lunch is served in terms of mechanics, and that what counts is the feeling and spirit of the occasion. Because the mechanics do not bother them, they cannot, or do not, see that to the child the spirit is expressed and set as much by the outer mechanics as by the teacher's inner state of mind.

Besides individual psychological resistance to a guidebook of this type, there is an ideological opposition current today based on sloppy thinking and the immaturity of certain individuals who invoke the "democratic cause" as a method to be applied to teaching. Their arguments are somewhat as follows: schools should be democratic; all teachers should be equal in a democracy, so all teachers should help decide procedural detail by popular vote. The fallacy of this reasoning lies in the assumption that the teachers are "equal" in the two things which should qualify them for voting: one, technical competence and knowledge; and two, readiness to "vote" for the children's welfare instead of their own. (Even our fundamental, broadest example of political democracy, the right to vote in an election, demands that the voter be twenty-one and vote in the district where he lives.) The absurdity of this false reasoning can lead to such instability of program and procedures as to make school completely confusing to pupils and teachers alike. This phony, so-called "democratic approach" is more of a menace to the develop-

ment of a good public nursery school program than we may think. It is rooted in prevalent present-day thinking which holds a thing good if enough people want it. The disagreement among experts on nursery schools as to the best techniques also furthers the fallacy. Here is a danger to many of our institutions, but particularly to the nursery school movement, which is very young and has had a restricted development.

We can distinguish three phases in this development. The school for research has been dominating in influence. The W.P.A. schools were next; they were organized to give employment to adults by letting them work in nursery schools, and the aim of the program was employment primarily, education secondarily. Then came the Lanham schools which were developed primarily to enable mothers to go to work in war industries, and to educate children as far as it was possible to do so. The present state-supported program in California is an outgrowth of the Lanham schools and the beginning of a nursery school program for the primary purpose of caring for and educating children. Here and there have been schools that previously existed for such purposes – those of the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association being among them.

Teacher Rating

The problem of staffing the new schools is a major one. Training centers are not graduating enough teachers to fill ten per cent of the need. One of the immediate problems to be solved is that of evaluating the relative abilities of the teachers who are actually functioning in the schools. Those in charge of programs are well aware of the vast differences in capacities of those women who are now the teachers in existing schools. While it is not difficult to rate teachers on a subjective basis, it is necessary to have some particular method on an objective basis. We cannot use those rating charts that are given to public school teachers, for they do not apply. A nursery school teacher cannot be judged by how much of an equivalent to the three R's her pupils have learned. In an effort to arrive at an objective method of measurement, the following rating charts were devised. They have been used in the Vallejo Nursery Schools and in the Golden Gate Nursery Schools and found practical and useful.

The charts consist of a list of qualities and aptitudes that have bearing on the question, "What makes a good nursery school teacher?" Each teacher is rated "excellent," "good," "fair," or "poor" on the items listed in the rating chart. The various items represent restatements with different emphasis on varying aspects of certain basic characteristics, personality qualities, and abilities that we have found essential for personnel in our schools. Staff members are rated every six months by the head teacher; her rating is then given to the supervisor who adds her rating marks on the report. Head teachers who are not satisfied with the personnel thus have a way of stating it in writing, and this written report can be shown to the member of the staff and discussed with her. The supervisor rates the head teachers, and all teachers are able, by looking at their rating charts, to see the things in which they are considered weak and in which they need to develop to become better teachers.

That the items actually cover the qualities needed by staff members is evidenced by the fact that among the three hundred persons who have been rated, no one ever received many checks in the fair or poor columns and at the same time was considered by the raters to be "good"; nor did a "poor" staff member ever receive many checks in the excellent or good columns when her rating was made. The head teachers are instructed to make every effort to consider each item carefully by itself and to be prepared to support with evidence and examples the ratings when discussing them with the supervisor whose judgment may differ. Where certain items such as attendance, veracity, liking of children, or emotional stability show low rating, the teacher is not suitable no matter what her other ratings may be. The overlapping of certain factors is necessary to stimulate the rater's critical judgment to make her think of all the various aspects of the duties to be performed. The chart forces a head teacher to substantiate her judgment of a "good" or "poor" staff member in a form which makes it possible to determine whether or not that person is good or weak in critical areas, or only in some of lesser importance, and it makes possible a prognosis for the future value of the person rated. It also allows for ratings to change according to the development of the rated person.

A numerical weighing may be made for each square in the rating chart so that each item is evaluated according to its specific impor-

tance in any given institution. A numerical rating score can then be given each person and a minimum set below which no employee may go and be retained. The items are largely self-explanatory, but a few comments on some of the listings should explain their significance.

Effect of presence on children is an intangible of paramount value. There are some people whose mere presence seems to be constructive, and with whom the children feel comfortable. There are others who have just the opposite effect upon them.

Capacity for development is an important item because untrained personnel must be engaged, and unless abilities can be developed in new teachers, the school is always in a weak condition.

Effect on other teachers is another intangible which is important because *esprit de corps* between teachers is so necessary. A teacher who is insecure, over-critical, or perhaps just out of her sphere in teaching, has a bad effect on other teachers.

Willingness to work overtime and *willingness to change hours* are important because of the possibility of teacher absence and shortage. Note the word "willingness," not "ability." Some who are willing are unable because of home duties to change hours; others are able but unwilling to change hours because of rigidity or insufficient interest in their work.

Veracity is essential because the teacher who reports only what she thinks someone wants to hear is a liability, particularly when she fails to report to the head teacher things that are not satisfactory and of which she should be aware. The same holds for head teachers who do not tell the supervisor the true state of affairs. Persons who make obviously untruthful statements cannot be kept on a staff.

Appropriate loyalties includes inter-staff relationships as well as loyalties to the program of the school, to parents, children, and community, and the stating of criticisms at suitable times and places.

Emotional stability refers to the capacity of a person to stay even-tempered.

Ability to take responsibility also includes willingness.

Willingness to take direction involves a relationship to authority which is of crucial importance for the functioning of a nursery school.

Mental ability means intellectual capacity regardless of formal education or personality.

Amount of reading and studying is one of the factors which show how serious the teacher's interest in her work is.

Ability to retain confidences is given as a separate item here because it is necessary to expect confidences about parents, children and teachers in nursery school, and a teacher who cannot keep these to herself often creates trouble.

Liking of children covers what can be observed in a teacher's behavior with children rather than what she says about liking them. It means that it is natural for her not to employ negative forms of discipline.

Comprehension of nursery education includes the knowledge that a teacher has acquired at a training school or through extensive reading, and refers to general theory and practice in nursery education, not just that of the local schools.

Understands age levels means familiarity with the dynamics of child behavior as given in Chapter 7.

Amount of talking refers to the number of words that a teacher uses with the children — the fewer the better.

Voice refers to the quality of the voice, which should be low-pitched and carry a quiet affectionate tone that is free from whining.

Speech refers to the suitability of the vocabulary used with the children.

Attitude toward being corrected is important because when a teacher can take criticisms of her work without reacting to it as a criticism of herself, she can improve her techniques with great rapidity. This characteristic is especially valuable in a beginning teacher.

Reliability when not supervised is an essential characteristic, because even a small nursery school cannot have a head teacher or a supervisor in constant attendance.

Ability to talk to parents is listed because there are teachers who have special talent for this, and such ability should be recognized.

Develops teaching material covers the head teacher's ability to give new teachers opportunities for growth, particularly those whose abilities might be in competition with her own.

Takes full responsibility means that she accepts the fact that it is up to her to see that things get done, even if she does not have proper assistance from her staff members.

Knowledge of school procedures refers to the material covered

Selected Reading

Deutsch, Helene, M.D., *The Psychology of Women: A Psychoanalytic Interpretation,* vol. I. New York, Grune and Stratton, 1944.

This is a discussion about women and mothers, written from a Freudian viewpoint. It is very technical, however, and is not recommended for general reading.

Dollard, John, and others, *Frustration and Aggression.* New Haven, Yale University Press, for the Institute of Human Relations, 1939.

In a report of a study on adult frustration and aggression, we have another source for learning the lesson of Aichhorn's book.

Harding, Esther, *The Way of All Women.* New York, Longmans, Green and Company, 1933.

The author is an analyst who follows the theories of Jung rather than of Freud. This book is highly recommended for women over thirty.

Hinkle, Beatrice, M.D., *The Re-Creating of the Individual.* New York, Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1923.

Another analyst and disciple of Jung has written an account of what happens in a Jungian analysis. A considerable amount of reference to children makes this book useful reading.

Neill, A. S., *The Problem Teacher.* New York, International Universities Press, 1944.

A radical English progressive educator with good feeling for children tells what teachers should be.

7

Children

In this chapter an effort will be made to describe certain characteristics which are common to all the children in public nursery schools. First we shall look at the environmental factors that influence children; then we shall examine briefly the aspects of inner development which characterize the children of nursery school age, for these are the things all teachers must know. How we deal with the behavior problems which arise in the various phases of child development will be discussed in the chapter on Behavior Problems.

Socio-Economic Background

First, let us see who the children in the Golden Gate nursery schools are, for they are typical of public nursery schools. The answer is American children of all kinds — rich and poor, black, white, and Oriental, legitimate and illegitimate. They come from all the groups that make up the cosmopolitan population of San Francisco. The languages spoken by the children include English, Italian, Chinese, German, Japanese, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Russian, and Hawaiian. The social and economic status of the parents varies widely. Some parents are illiterate, some have Ph.D.'s; and children are brought to school by nursemaids, chauffeurs, grandparents, parents, or older brothers and sisters. The children come from solid homes and from broken homes; some have mothers who work outside the home from choice or necessity, others have mothers who spend almost all their time at home. The chief reasons

why children are enrolled in our schools are these: mother divorced, mother dead, mother in hospital, mother crippled, mother mentally disturbed, mother cruel and negligent, mother with three or more children under six years of age; or perhaps the family lives in but one or two rooms, or a physician recommends nursery school care; sometimes parents just want nursery school education for their children. The last reason applies to most of the children in the Three-Fifty Union Street Nursery School, which is self-supporting. Our other schools are in part supported by the Community Chest, for there are some children who would have to go to orphanages or boarding homes, or be placed with unsuitable relatives, unless these nursery schools were open to them.

Besides coming from many different racial and social backgrounds, the children evidence through their behavior that they have received a wide gamut of emotional and physical care. The children may be healthy or frail, fat or skinny, bright or dull, talkative or quiet, active or inactive, dirty or clean, kind or mean, good eaters or poor eaters, good sleepers or poor sleepers. Taken all together they exhibit every kind of normal child behavior possible at their age levels.

Some of the unfavorable environmental influences which affect these children grow out of housing, transportation, and recreational complications. Housing of many children is in homes where inside play space is limited, and outdoor space non-existent except for the street. Children of well-to-do parents are often no better off than poorer children because all the house but the "nursery" is too elegant for them to play in, and the yard space is a garden only to look at. Transportation is often inadequate for getting children to school, parks, or to visit relatives and friends. Distances are too long to walk, and children are subjected to the punishment of riding with rush-hour crowds in public conveyances. Recreation facilities are non-existent in many neighborhoods, except for bars where children are kept waiting while their parents try to relax or revive. (Minors under twenty-one are excluded from bars in California, but not children under ten.) Many of our children have been to movies since shortly after they were born, for their parents had no one to leave them with at home. Some are even "parked" for the day at the movies on Saturday or Sunday, alone or with servants or siblings. Our movie-going, drinking, comic-strip and radio-

culture patterns put pressures on the children that make them value hot dogs over milk, movies over sleep, radio over talk, and Popeye over papa. Parents first allow these preferences to be built up, then try to undo them with a command or a slap.

Emotional Background

Disturbed family relationships are a more important factor, and they play havoc in the young child's life regardless of his economic status. Death or divorce, or even the temporary absence of the parents; mental, social, or emotional instability; unemployment or insufficient income; relations with siblings and in-laws; and social or religious problems are but some of the factors which exert a profound influence upon the child of today.

Death of the mother is, fortunately, uncommon; but especially during war, death of the father is a more frequent tragedy, and it may make the mother either reject the child or become excessively possessive. Desertion by the mother is more serious than desertion by the father, and not so infrequent as it at first appears. On the other hand, the child may not be deprived of a relationship, but may have more complex ones forced upon him. Divorced parents and remarried divorced parents are almost as commonplace today as little girls who wear overalls, and sometimes the real mother, real father, stepmother and stepfather all share in bringing the child to and from school. Such a variety of relationships is bound to be confusing to the young child, and may seriously undermine his emotional security. Likewise, separation of parents from each other with bad feeling makes a deep hurt for the child unless the missing parent has been cruel to him, while separations with good feeling also hurt the child, though not as severely. Even so, temporary reconciliations are usually reflected in the child's happier behavior. Quarreling parents produce difficult problems for children, especially when they quarrel over him. Faithlessness on the part of a parent nearly always brings resentment and rejection of the child by the injured parent, with resulting negative aggressive or apathetic behavior on the part of the child.

Refusal of the mother to stay home makes children unhappy, whether the mother goes to work or to play; the mother's inability to stay home is less trying on a child, but also saddening. Illness of

all kinds upsets harmonious relationships between children and parents. Absence of the mother, whether she is shopping, at a party, at a funeral, or at an office or factory, or in a mental hospital, has such profound and complicated results for the child that a whole book would be needed to explain the merits and demerits of prevailing customs. Let us say only that in this matter all mothers sin in the eyes of their children.

Drunkenness of either or both parents is devastating for young children, and among other things, it makes them hard to reach and inclined to live in fantasy for compensation, while criminality of either parent is a cloud over the child. Mental disease of either parent has a profound effect, and gross inferiority of either parent can, like insanity, be "catching," because children imitate abnormal behavior. Erratic discipline from either or both parents keep a child in hot water, while brutal punishments and even mild spankings are often wounds which become emotionally infected. Temperamental clashes cause trouble, particularly among sensitive people, for example, when quick parents have slow children, or when imaginative parents have concrete-minded children, or vice versa. The desire to understand each other may be there, but the temperaments are worlds apart.

Lack of ability to earn enough to support his family, lack of opportunity to do so, or refusal to do so, reflects pitifully on a man's little children unless he has some other proper ground for self-esteem. Lack of a mother's ability or opportunity to earn enough for herself and her children will also have a bad influence, depending mostly upon such factors as how acutely the family lacks food, medical care, and other necessities, or what struggles are necessary to maintain a certain standard of living.

In-laws living with the family may contribute unfavorable influences both by giving support or denial to the young child's demands. Typical among the causes for disturbed family relationships is sibling rivalry, sibling domination and brutality, arrival of a new baby, and death or gross defect of a sibling. Intermarriage between races and religions may cause parental conflicts over children because of divergent traditional concepts, even when the marriage is harmonious.

Any of these factors can have a profound influence on a child's life, and while it may not be easy in a given case to determine

which is the most important one, we must never lose sight of the rôle these factors play in the lives of some nursery school children. The teacher must be imbued with the importance of all these things. That does not mean that she has to study each child's individual history. In fact, we cannot find out all the facts we ought to know, and therefore we should always keep it in mind that unknown influences play an important part in the child's behavior.

Behavioral Background

As each child comes in the door of the nursery school for the first day, it is necessary for the teacher to make a quick estimate of his individual personality so that she can try to set up an initial relationship which will tend to make the child as comfortable as possible. Great efforts should be made to get him to enjoy his first nursery school day. Since there is often no time to read records and learn the personal history of the child, the teacher must rely upon her intuition and sensitivity to help her. Intuition has sometimes been defined as the rapid unconscious assembling of such facts as can be applied to the situation calling for an immediate response. Whether it is that or something else, the nursery school teacher must know how to interpret the child's behavior and the meaning of the expression in his eyes from the moment he enters the door. However, she cannot evaluate individual expressions unless she knows typical, general child behavior. Therefore, she must be familiar with the various growth stages a child goes through and the typical problems, centering around eating, learning to be continent, expressing oneself in speech, and obeying the commands of adults. She will not be able to interpret sympathetically the child's feelings unless she is acquainted with normal child behavior at its various levels from birth to six years of age. And if she is to redirect behavior to good ends, she needs to understand child behavior in terms not only of its significance in the school and the group relationships, but also of its inner significance to the child himself.

Certain patterns of behavior are expected by society from any child, but exactly just what that behavior is depends upon his age, upon a variety of circumstances, and to a great extent upon the arbitrary point of view of the adults judging it. In recent years, as

a result of research based on observation of children at home and in the nursery schools, scientific standards for judging child behavior have been developed. These standards are in accord with the normal growth possibilities of the child, and in many respects they differ from those which tradition has handed down to us. There are now a number of books on nursery education which can give you the characteristics of growth and behavior of average children from birth to five years of age. The work of Dr. Arnold Gesell and his associates is outstanding in this field. While it is helpful for the nursery school teacher to be familiar with the characteristics of "normal" behavior of children and the stages of their growth process, it is important to realize that this is only a minor part of the preparation for dealing with the disturbed emotional responses which are characteristic of all children, and particularly those of nursery school age. As teachers, we must know not only those responses which represent acceptable behavior, but we must also understand the inner dynamics of the emotional life which produce unacceptable behavior. In the Golden Gate Nursery Schools we are not so much concerned with the question whether or not Johnny's motor, adaptive language, or personal-social behavior has maturated, as we are with the practical problems whether or not Johnny eats and sleeps well and tries to keep his pants dry, and above all, whether or not he is enjoying himself, is appropriately active, and makes good social contacts with adults and children. When he fails in any of these matters, we must know what to do to make the environment more favorable for him so that his behavior will become what we wish it to be.

Guidance in the Nursery School

Children who are normal, as measured by child development standards, yet whose behavior is painful to their elders, are sometimes referred to child guidance clinics where psychiatrists talk with the parents and the child in order to find out the causes of the unpleasant behavior. It is well known that the child's behavior often changes when parents and children can be given insight into the hidden meaning of bad behavior in terms of the child's inner conflicts. The child guidance clinic and the child development research center have very different ways of studying child behavior.

Guidance clinics are concerned with misbehavior and the child's inner conflicts. Research centers are concerned with characteristic behavior norms for children. One might say that guidance is bent on finding out what makes this Johnny tick; while research is interested in knowing how all the Johnnys tick. Suppose Johnny steals a piece of candy, for which his father gives him a beating, and Johnny, still sore from the beating, socks his teacher in the eye, and she sends him to a child guidance clinic. The clinic doctor would try to discover why Johnny took the candy in the first place, why his father beat him for such an offense, and what can be done to improve Johnny's relations with his father and his teacher. This is what is meant by the dynamic approach to this case of candy stealing. A child development research institute would not be concerned with the question of why this Johnny stole the candy, got beaten, or hit a teacher; but it would investigate the incidents of candy stealing among boys of various age levels in different socio-economic groups; the incidence and type of parental punishment for candy stealing as revealed by a special inquiry, and the exact number of hittings per teacher and per child. Any recent book on child development will give innumerable references to studies made on all aspects of child behavior from which you can glean statistical information about the norms and deviations of behavior on an immense variety of subjects. However, you will not learn why a given child did anything in terms of what the observable behavior meant as an expression of the child's inner conflicts.

The assumption upon which all the child development research is based is that growth is normal and that the child eats, sleeps, and obeys, unless something of an unusual nature, distinctly unfavorable to this growth development, appears in the environment. In contrast, the assumption of the child guidance clinics is that no child reaches the age of five years without having gone through severe inner and outer struggles against the demands society places upon him. And further, that in these times of rapid social change and breakdown of established cultural patterns, such things as learning to eat, to walk, to talk, to eliminate on schedule, to obey elders, to get along with other people, and to accept the social implications of one's sex are no longer as simple as they once were. They have become complicated and hazardous lessons — harder for the young child to learn just as they have become harder for parents and schools to teach.

Guidance clinics have also confirmed the fact that disturbed, neurotic, and psychotic behavior has its origins in earliest childhood, and that in these stages of development through which every individual has to pass, whether he is a Fiji Islander or an American college professor, the foundations of character and personality are laid. To a great extent psychiatrists' recent concern with early childhood is prompted by their conviction that a child who reaches the age of five without serious psychological injury is unlikely to go to either the gallows or the insane asylum; and that the child's attitude toward the world, developed in his early years, tends to become fixed for his entire life. This is, of course, not entirely new knowledge, but only the modern scientific verification of the old dictum, "As the twig is bent . . ."

It is a well-known fact that few of us remember much of our experiences before the age of five. As a rule we remember even less the attitudes we then held toward those around us; so we cannot draw upon our memories for knowledge of what children are going through from birth to five years. Therefore, we must observe children and study the observations reported by others who understand behavior as dynamic and expressive of inner meaning — not just as growth stages to be measured with stop watches.

Because student teachers are usually not familiar with guidance interpretations of children's behavior, this chapter attempts to survey them briefly.

As we have seen already, the difference between guidance clinics and research centers is a matter of divergent intrepretation of the same observational data. For example, Gesell's "poor eaters" among babies behave in the same way as those whom Ribble found to be unwanted by their mothers. This does not mean that every poor eater is an unwanted child, nor that every unwanted child is a poor eater; but it does mean that a correlation exists. And in this correlation Gesell does not seem to be interested, whereas it is significant for Ribble, for she refuses to rule out possible emotional factors simply because they are harder to measure. (Although Gesell calls his laboratories and nursery schools "guidance centers," they actually function as research centers within the meaning of the term as used here.)

General Patterns of Early Growth

When the child comes to nursery school, there are certain things we can assume have happened to him and others that we presume have not. We can feel fairly sure that no one has tried to make him read the Bible, or go to the grocery store for a loaf of bread, or take responsibility for the care of his baby brother. You cannot say with assurance that a given child of two just entering nursery school has been weaned from his bottle, though the chances are that he has. By his second or third birthday, we expect that he should be able to talk a little, to walk, and to obey to some extent, no matter what individual training he has had; also that he knows little if anything about sex, while he may or may not have had much sociability in his life, with either adults or children. We know that he is the sum total of all his experiences since birth, and that we shall be providing new as well as familiar experiences which will further influence his development as an individual. Whether or not what he has already experienced has, on the whole, been good or bad for him, we judge by his habits of eating, sleeping, walking, talking, playing with others, his control of elimination, and his general obedience — not by what his parents say about him.

Except for the matter of toilet training and obedience, both of which are established definitely against a child's will, any disturbances of behavior concern activities which the child himself is eager to perform and which his parents also want him to perform — to eat, sleep, walk, talk, and be with others. The manner in which he lives out these impulses is so important to his parents that, unless he conforms to their expectations, he gets into conflict with them and also with himself, until a point may be reached where he refuses, totally or partially, to do any of the things he would normally enjoy doing. These conflicts come about through numerous causes, the most important of which we have pointed out as representing unfavorable environmental circumstances and as disturbed family relationships.

Let us now turn to the development of a modern baby from birth and let us see how his emotional life grows. All children have more or less the same prenatal environment, in which there is no effort necessary to eat, keep warm, or get a quiet place to sleep, in contrast to the outer world in which they begin their existence

separated from their mother's. Though the process of birth has been harder for some than others, all must struggle immediately to make known their wants regarding food, warmth, and quiet. If a child's crying apparatus isn't good, or if the hearing of mother or hospital nurse is deficient, his whole body will register signs of struggle and feeble protest. Eating and sleeping are the big biological needs and emotional satisfactions of the infant in which he plays an active part. He can cry when he is hungry or cold or if it is too noisy (infants do not like loud noises); but can do nothing to alleviate his discomfort, except possibly suck his thumb after the first few weeks.

Oral Satisfactions

The sucking and eating of an infant show a kind of conscious coöperation with his environment. Some babies cannot or will not do proper sucking (of bottle or breast, not thumb) unless certain conditions are favorable. There is considerable evidence to show that they do best when the adult who holds the nursing infant has a genuine feeling of love and affection for the child, be this adult mama, papa, granny, or a big brother. This knowledge is as old as the hills, but psychiatric investigation has now given the stamp of scientific approval. We must conclude that children who are unwanted and unloved by their mothers are more likely to suffer some disabilities in their adjustment to the eating situation. When deprived of proper satisfaction, the child reacts with unmistakable signs of anger or apathy, and if the deprivation is severe or long-lasting, there will be an adverse effect upon the whole development of the child. The importance of early eating satisfaction cannot be overestimated, for as Gesell says, it is a "matrix" from which personality develops like the branchings from the trunk of a tree. And Beverly goes so far as to say that an individual's personality is made in the first six months of his life. Lack of food, insufficient sucking, improper food, or improper handling at feeding time will cause a child to suck his fingers for solace. When he is deprived of his fingers, insult is added to injury. Since bottle nipples give milk faster than breast nipples, the breast-fed baby has a better chance of being satisfied on his sucking requirements, and this is one reason why breast feeding is recommended. (Where babies in primitive societies are given the breast whenever they cry up to

three years of age, there seems to be no thumb-sucking among young children.) The sucking which a baby sometimes wants to do even after his stomach has had its food quota may help to keep peristalsis going in the right direction and thus prevent regurgitation. Sucking produces a feeling of well-being that is of fundamental importance to a baby. The Biblical expression to "have suck" no doubt refers to this satisfaction and not only to the nutritional intake. It is unfortunate that among modern parents, disapproval of thumb-sucking is more prevalent than knowledge of the infant's need for sucking satisfaction, and that so many of them have no idea of how severely a child can be thwarted by having his hands tied or otherwise prevented from reaching his mouth. All babies suck their thumbs or fingers a little; yet, if severe sucking develops at any time during the first year, it is a sign of emotional frustration.

Aside from sucking, the mouth brings babies other pleasures. They like to drool, spit, blubber, and have the tongue and lips play with the saliva, to "taste" or "kiss" everything the mouth can reach, including eventually the toes, and to make sounds by opening and shutting the lips. The mouth activities give the first signs of a developing consciousness; therefore, to deprive or punish the baby's mouth is to wound him severely. The predominance of the mouth as a center of satisfaction extends into the time when a child can walk and talk and otherwise bring satisfactions to his body, and all through the early years a child in distress or discomfort will tend to turn to the mouth for satisfaction, either by sucking his thumb, an object, a lollypop, or by making mouth noises, or noiseless mouth movements. Later, when he is concentrating on making a crayon drawing or building with blocks, his mouth is still likely to show the struggle which is going on in his mind and body when he strives for an achievement.

All the undesirable mouth activities which children exhibit in nursery school we look upon as either normal or excessive manifestations of the child's effort to live out the needs of his mouth — the organ over which he first has conscious control, and which, since birth, has been the source of profound satisfaction. We know that all our children, regardless of racial, economic, or psychological environment, have conflicts with their environment in their efforts to live out mouth satisfactions as nature has indicated they

should, and therefore we make every effort in school to remember how complicated unpleasant mouth behavior is.

It is safe to say that children do not live to their second birthday without struggles, some of them traumatic and scarring. But even in the ideal situation with an understanding and affectionate mother the weaning process is one of difficulty for the baby. This is so chiefly because our society demands this change of eating habits at too early an age, and because it represents the first approved satisfaction that the child must renounce in order to achieve harmony with the mother. The task set for the parents at this time is the one of letting the child have enough love and encouragement so that he will willingly give up the nipple satisfaction for the approval he receives for learning to eat from cup and spoon. When a child is forced by threats and punishments to give up established emotional satisfactions for new and untried ones, he usually does not obey right away, but tries secretly and surreptitiously, sometimes openly, to recapture them. The term "regressive behavior" refers to this. The nursery school and the parents must provide incentives for a voluntary giving up of the old ways for the satisfactions of learning the new ones, and affectionate approval for children's efforts must be shown them, if the new habits are to be firmly established. Usually it is necessary to let children "regress" through imaginative play with dolls or with each other, or by actually living out certain satisfactions, before one can persuade them to go on to the next stage of development. Our school procedures are based on an awareness of what children have been through and what learnings and relearnings we wish them to accomplish. We like them to feel that learning is a pleasure — a thought that some of them seem never to have entertained.

It is pitiful to see how many children who come to nursery school have no joy in eating. Their attitudes are typified by the statement a child once made about a companion, "Food is no torture to John, he likes it." Parents have much unnecessary anxiety over whether or not children get enough to eat, and this anxiety mounts when the weaning process quite naturally makes the child's appetite fall off. Then come coaxing, nagging, rewards, threats, punishments, and forced feeding, all of which add to the troubles which may have originated from a situation where temporary loss of appetite was not passed over lightly enough by the parents. Sometimes the

Doll corner play is best when furniture is scaled to children's size. Note the piano made of tomato lugs, with keys painted on the wood. The stove is an orange crate with painted burners. Two orange crates with a tomato lug in between make a stove, sink, and refrigerator. A real water faucet is a big asset.





Children can and do remove their easel paintings, but they should be encouraged to let the teacher do it for them in order to preserve the paintings. By the time this girl finds the teacher, her painting may be torn or smeared on her clothes.

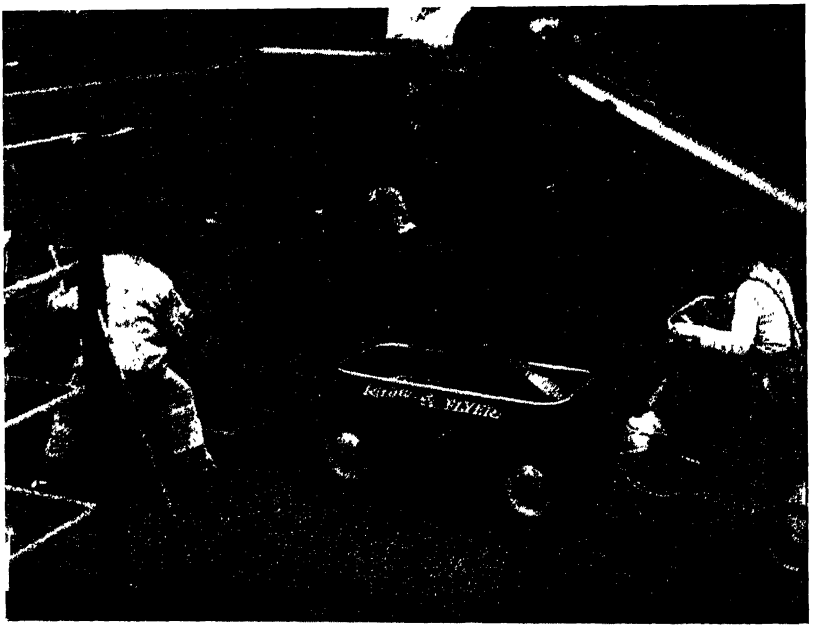
Here you see three tables of indoor activities, one for clay, one for miscellaneous table blocks, pegboards, and puzzles, and one for crayons. Note the blankets in the lockers and the metal strips for inserting name tags. When scotch tape is pasted over the tags, the children can't remove or erase them.

Ralph Putzker





Washing-up after finger painting is part of the fun. A rough job is done in this pail before the child goes to the regular wash basins. He may do a thorough job here, but will tend to use towels instead of water to remove the paint unless he is instructed how to get most of it off in the water.



Plenty of outdoor equipment is the answer to most discipline problems, but careful supervision is needed to insure proper use of equipment.





A tall, strong packing box with one or two sides open made of one-inch smoothed boards and painted provides a center for dramatic activity. Variety in sizes and openings makes the boxes more useful.

A rocking boat, merry-go-round, swings, and jungle gym can all be enjoyed by two-year-olds. Merry-go-round of standard height was set in pavement to height of seven inches. No apparatus is more enjoyed, and it is excellent for promoting group play.

Robert Overstra





Table toys are needed in large assortment for quiet play. New things should be brought out on rainy days.



Plenty of blocks make the foundation for good block play.

Playroom in typical four-unit F.P.H.A. nursery school building.



child in turn gets worried over his mother's concern; this worry affects his appetite adversely. Furthermore, besides wanting children to eat even when they don't feel like it, parents usually demand good eating manners at an age when the child is too young for the good muscular coördination upon which neat eating habits are based. Also, the child deprived of the nipple and forced to the cup and spoon often expresses protest by being messy. He sometimes holds food in his mouth, without chewing it, lets food drip out of the corners, spits out food he dislikes, drops and spills it on the floor, throws it about the room, and otherwise shows that he doesn't take to the newfangled eating ideas of his mother. To be severe with him for these protests is to make him find new ones. A period of messy eating is unavoidable with most children, and if they are not allowed to have it in the second and third years of life, they may insist upon trying to fall back on it for years to come. Eating is a mouth pleasure that we can encourage in nursery school, but spitting, biting, putting certain things in the mouth, and chewing gum (which gets passed from mouth to mouth) we cannot. Though normal, and considerably in evidence, such behavior must be suppressed and given up for other responses which are appropriate for children past two years of age.

Eliminative Development

The above paragraphs will, I trust, make you "mouth minded" in your dealings with the children; but not to the exclusion of an equally important part of the anatomy, the eliminative organs. However, what children suffer from mouth deprivation is nothing compared with what they endure from anal punishment. Training a child to modern toilet habits is as difficult a psychological job as ever confronted one human being in relation to another. The fact that we lived through it as children and that we remember little if anything is no proof that we were wisely handled. Children can become stubborn, aggressive, compulsive, and warped in their personality if mothers fight and punish them for incontinence. And much of the anti-social behavior in the nursery school can be traced back to severity of toilet training.

Having to go through toilet training at the tender age of one is another of the penalties we have to pay for living in America and

in the twentieth century. Children in the nursery school are either still in the throes of this struggle, or have just passed through it and are freshly stimulated on the whole subject by the presence of younger children. Again, racial, social, or economic background does not make much difference, except that most foreign families are less fastidious about eliminative functions, and that families who can afford diaper service are less concerned with cutting down on the baby's washing. Rich or poor, black or white, every child at some time or other (beginning between the ages of three months and three years) has to try to eliminate when and where his mother says, and only then and there. To learn this is difficult at any age because it requires intricate coördination of the whole body. And then the psychological difficulty for the child is that mother wants the function, but does not appreciate the products. She views them with disgust and creates a sense of shame for what the child produces, but at the same time she gets angry at him when he refuses to perform. This is very confusing to him.

Toilet training easily becomes difficult because the whole issue of obedience arises here for the first time, and the child realizes that here, in contrast to weaning, he can successfully refuse to coöperate. Mothers usually do not recognize the fact that in this power fight they are in a disadvantageous position.

There are several reasons why mothers and nurses make toilet training into a painful process with painful results. For one thing, society expects them to train their children at too early an age in terms of both phychological and physiological growth. Furthermore, washing diapers and cleaning buttocks is disagreeable; it is generally relegated to the mother, who tires of the job. Witness how papa will change "number 1," but calls mother for "number 2." (In nursery school the student teacher usually leaves the work to a teacher, and the head teacher is called upon more often than any other.) The mother may know that her child can't help incontinence, and perhaps she takes it well enough on the surface. Nonetheless, she is always looking forward to the day when the modern plumbing devices will be properly used by the youngest member of the family. And in nine cases out of ten she sets her mind on a day that is premature for the child's physiological and psychological coöperation. At first she gradually grows more insistent, and when she gets results (by accident, largely) she feels the battle

is half over. But it never is, if she has started the child too young, and so there are failures and disappointments — and later scoldings, punishment and rejection. A whole series of pitched battles of wills may ensue, in which neither wins and neither loses. Children vary so in their individual rates of development that it is an easy mistake for any parent to make to begin toilet training too young.

In cases where bowel training is very bad, bladder training is usually bad, too; but the latter can be difficult even if the former has been relatively easy. If training is postponed until a time when the child can coöperate, the problem hinges upon how the child feels toward his mother or the person or persons training him. Where many adults take part, he has increased difficulties; hence the need for uniform attitudes from nursery school teachers. The possibilities of mismanagement of the training process are unlimited. Taking into account also the inevitable frustrations concerning walking, talking, and eating, it is safe to say that no year of life is as difficult as the second, and that there is no year when his mother needs more help in raising him. By the time the child is two, if the mother is ready to collapse from her own frustrations, or her child's, or those of both, the nursery school can come to her rescue. Caring for even one child under two is a full-time job, but our schools are filled with children whose mothers have, from necessity or choice, shared this job with a dozen other persons, whose only common approach to the child's soiling and wetting was that it is unpleasant and something which he must overcome. Unfortunately, more than the wetting and soiling may be affected — the child's sense of self-respect and decency can also be injured. Feelings of guilt and anxiety, as well as resentment at non-understanding treatment, may become dominant and cause tantrums, rebelliousness, and aggressive and destructive behavior, which will lead to more battles, more punishments, and more misbehavior.

Walking and Talking

Let us next consider the problems a pre-nursery school child encounters in learning to walk and talk. These are not so complicated as those of eating and eliminating. If parents didn't interfere with eliminating habits, they would never develop to conform with the standards of civilized living; but in walking and talking, inner

growth compulsions are at work which make it almost inevitable that a normal child learns to walk and even talk without parental persuasion or pressure. However, in learning either, the child does experience difficulties.

The frustrations encountered in learning to walk are much greater than those of learning to talk. Modern housing gives children little space in which to move freely without getting into conflict with their environment. As a rule, the "don'ts" in the life of a beginning walker are more numerous than at any other time. Later, when the actual locomotion is easier, he could better learn taboo things and places, because his mind would no longer be on his wobbly knees. But his having to learn not to touch certain things and not to go certain places cannot be postponed. Children who are neglected and have many mishaps in their early walking expeditions can suffer psychological injury, which results in resentment against the adults to whom they have instinctively looked for protection. A safe environment for learning to walk helps to build confidence, and is one of the foundations for the development of good muscular coördination.

The child's greatest hazard in learning to talk is that of saying the wrong thing and being punished or ridiculed for it. Most children go through some of this before two years of age — more after that time. Children seldom find it easy to understand why certain words sound funny to the parents, or why they are taboo. Some children in our schools come from bilingual homes and suffer from not having their speech understood in school, and from not being able to understand the English spoken to them. There are many children who are slow in talking for various reasons: the child feels, or is, rejected and therefore lacks the spontaneity for speech; no one makes any effort to talk to him; a manic, garrulous mother never gives him a chance to say anything; perhaps the child has a permanent mad on because of the scenes over eating and eliminating; or he may refuse to talk because he feels jealous and moody over being displaced by the arrival of a new baby. These are but a few of many factors which can have an adverse effect on talking abilities because language plays a rôle in almost all human relationships.

Sexual Development

Around the age of three children develop a sense of the self as an entity and begin to ask questions about who and what they are and where they come from. This is usually also the beginning of their intellectual comprehension of sex. Sex education, however, starts earlier, for the way in which children are toilet trained and dealt with when masturbating also constitutes sex education. And before children are six years old, they learn that boys and girls have a different anatomy, and also that there is some mysterious relationship between the parents about which they may not satisfy their curiosity. All this creates problems.

Because children are scolded and punished for wetting, soiling, and masturbating, they come to think that certain parts or areas of the body are "bad," and this becomes a source of anxiety. In addition, boys are sometimes openly, although more often indirectly, threatened with the removal of the offending organ; while girls are made to develop fears of catastrophic sores. Few parents allow children to wet, soil and masturbate as their state of development requires, and most parents attempt to make their children grow up too rapidly, because they have unwarranted fears of serious consequences from what is in reality nothing but normal child behavior.

As a rule the natural curiosity of most children, concerning functions of elimination, childbirth, adult sexual relations and anatomical differences between boys and girls is not allowed expression. When the children do ask questions, they are misled by tales of the stork or they are possibly punished. The adults find it hard to explain sex in terms of their own understanding, and because of the outspoken nature of children's sex curiosity the adults are usually shocked, giving children the impression that these matters are all "bad" in some way. This is unfortunate for the development of normal curiosity, and it also tends to destroy the children's confidence in adults. It is this inability of the adult to deal with the child's sexuality that makes the child feel there are some things he must not reveal to anyone. Thus masturbating becomes a clandestine affair, and all sex interest must be repressed as much as possible. Since all learning processes thrive upon the individual's curiosity, the repressive type of sex education may have a very unfavorable influence upon the child's capacity to learn anything.

Anxieties and Other Problems

To learn to eat, walk, talk, be continent, not masturbate and show no interest in sex is quite a large order for children, but besides all this, they are expected to give up a position of privilege if and when a new baby comes. This is almost as hard for a child as it would be for the parent if mama or papa brought home another husband or wife. Very few parents realize this. Even when parents have no favoritism for one child over another, the coming of the new baby is always experienced by the child as an injustice, chiefly because the baby is allowed to nurse from the breast or the bottle and to soil and wet as much as it pleases. To right this unfair state of things, the child may revert to wetting or may refuse to eat. This in turn will cause his mother to become hostile toward him. The new baby is then the victim of the child's jealous hatred and must fight for his rights too. Cruelty between brothers and sisters can cause parents to use severe disciplinary methods, thus creating further resentments and other emotional problems. When parents have a preference concerning the sex of their children, a girl may wish she were a boy, or a boy may think he would have been better off as a girl, and so both boys and girls may find it difficult to accept not only the facts of life but also the facts of their own sex rôle. This difficulty can create serious obstacles to good personality development.

In spite of this array of complexities and problems with which children must cope, they are above all expected to mind. Practically all orders of all adults must be carried out at all times if a child wants to be considered good. As a rule parents do not realize that children can develop personality and character only when they can assert themselves occasionally by resisting adults. It is not at all necessary to force children to obey at all times in order to make them develop the inner voice of moral authority which speaks when parents are absent. Gesell says children must have "enough defiance to grow." Most parents, however, are inclined to look upon their children's misbehavior only as an evil which must be nipped in the bud, and they tend to use measures which make the child feel he is basically bad. When this happens, anxiety sets in and causes a host of troubles.

Children are also expected to tell the truth, often at a time when

they are still unable to distinguish reality from unreality, fact from fiction, and experience from imagination. Their consciousness develops slowly from the presumably unconscious state of their mind at birth, and building a store of memories from personal experiences is a tremendous task. To identify objects, persons and events, and to evaluate their significance properly is far from easy. To keep apart yesterday's actual experience and last night's dream is often absolutely impossible for the young child. Yet parents seldom condone falsehoods based upon this confusion, and further confuse children by punishments which are incomprehensible to them.

That even the well-loved child suffers anxiety is not always easily believed. Therefore, let us have a closer look at the possibilities for developing anxiety that are inherent in every child's life. First, there is the situation in which the infant experiences hunger, cold, lack of sleep or affection, and is not properly cared for. Then comes the weaning, when his very satisfactory way of feeding is replaced by one in which he can see no advantage at all. Before the first year is over, most children have had at least some minor illnesses, an inoculation or two, and probably some unpleasant medical examinations. In learning to walk they have experienced many bumps. There have been more or less frequent times when the mother disappeared and left the child in the care of adults who may or may not have understood his needs. Also before the first birthday, he may have experienced assaults from jealous siblings.

In the second year, the anxiety that stems from failing to keep clean or dry is quite noticeable; masturbation becomes a source of real worry; and many case histories show, because of these two problems, an irrational fear of punishment directed against the sex organ is almost inevitable. Then there are the anxieties that arise in consequence of wishes to kill or hurt the siblings, parents, teachers or other children. And last, but by no means least, there is the fear of punishment, corporal or otherwise. While no adult can thrive in an atmosphere where physical pain befalls him at his least mistake, most little children are expected to do so.

Anxiety can be endured only up to a certain point. Then we all have to do something about it. Children who ask questions such as, "Mama, am I a good boy?" in the hope of relieving the inner pressure do not always get reassuring answers. To attack or try to

destroy the person who causes the child's anxiety is the next best method to get even. As a rule, the hostile aggressive child is the one with the greatest anxiety. These anxious children seem to be always fighting and hitting other children and are the ones who do not like to obey. The older boys in the nursery school show more aggressive behavior than do the girls of the same age. Some of this behavior is encouraged by parents who look upon it as masculine, but when negative aggressive behavior is studied in individual cases, it becomes evident that anxiety, rather than masculinity, is the most frequent source of the unpleasant aggressions. If four- and five-year-old boys have more anxieties than girls, it is probably due to an effort of the parents to shorten their babyhood and make them into "little men" at too early an age. In this respect, the boy's psychological weaning is usually too abrupt. In contrast, girls are allowed to remain infantile for a longer period because there seems to be no risk to their feminity as it is generally conceived.

The Function of the Nursery School

Growth and development during the first five years are more rapid than at any other time of life. Yet parents and teachers are impatient, tend to push the child, and resent his inability to accelerate certain processes. The only cue we have for proper timing in providing new experiences for the child is his own response. It is true, certain growth manifestations can be accelerated by pressure – but only at the expense of others. However, there is no question that a child's development can be slowed down by frustrations and inhibitions, and that it can be diverted and perverted.

Froebel, Freud, and other students of child behavior have observed that the experiences of the earliest years are fundamental in character and personality development, and that there are many crises in which all the child's physical and psychic energy is needed for solving the emotional problems that confront him. His intellectual powers are inadequate to deal with his emotional troubles, and most of the time he is apprehensive over whether his impulses will meet with adult approval, anger or indifference. By the time he is six he has settled on habits of eating, sleeping, eliminating, playing, sex behavior, and obedience that are more or less acceptable to his elders. At the age of six he should be able to tell himself

what is right or wrong on many matters. He is expected by now to have acquired the emotional and mental maturity necessary for the big intellectual workout in formal elementary schooling. When he feels all right inside, he can learn with ease, but if his mind is too much concerned with unsolved emotional difficulties, it is not free to learn. Then he becomes the problem child of the classroom because new frustrations are heaped on older ones. His physical growth cannot be prevented except by disease or death; his mental growth, however, is intimately interwoven with his emotional development, which can be arrested at any point during these first five years. For this reason, it is of critical importance that beginning reading, instead of starting at a certain chronological age, be timed in accordance with the emotional age of the child.

Because the emotional and spiritual development of the first six years is so important and proceeds at highly individual rates, the nursery school set-up must provide maximum leeway for individual tendencies, as well as maximum stability of environment. More important than the mental age of a child is his emotional age, and that must be judged from his behavior. For this a knowledge of age level behavior is essential, although we must always remember that norms and statistical concepts of behavior can never perfectly fit a given case. Like a pair of coveralls they fit the child if he fits them and not because of a size or age label. Nor do we need to know too much about so-called norms. However, very definitely we need to know that all children in the nursery school are likely, on occasion, to cry, spit, have tantrums, bite, masturbate, snatch, hit, kick, swear, exhibit the body, break things, and be obscene.

Speaking generally, there is a great change in all aspects of child behavior from two to five. In comparison with the two-year-olds, the older children walk and talk better, and run faster; eat a little more, sleep a little less; obey better, have fewer tantrums, do less masturbating, biting, crying, and wetting; do more hitting, kicking, screaming; and no longer try to play with feces. They are more obscene and consciously exhibitionistic, swear more, run away less, and are better able to verbalize their anxieties. Older children show more sustained attention. They have a better sense of time and space, of here and there, of cause and effect, and of fair play. They manifest more sense of humor, creative imagination, and ability to express themselves in various activities. They engage in more com-

plicated doll play. They are much better able to understand language. However, it is important to realize that an individual child may present any number of developmental deviations from this general pattern. A four-year-old may conduct himself in such a way that he appears to be less mature than a two-year-old. Unsolved emotional conflicts are the common cause of the great majority of all these deviations; therefore, the behavior of any child must be judged in light of such conflicts.

The foregoing should make it obvious that an understanding heart is more valuable equipment for work with children than a knowledge of age level norms or of statistics concerning child development. Working with young children as a teacher is a rewarding and maturing experience, and next to "mother," "teacher" is the nicest name to be called by a child.

Selected Reading

Arthus, André, *The Unknown World of the Child*, translated from the French by Robin Scutt. London, Paul Elek, 1947.

A helpful discussion of behavior problems.

Barker, Robert G., Jacob S. Kounin, and Herbert F. Wright (eds.), *Child Behavior and Development.* New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1943.

More than thirty authors have contributed heavy, intellectual articles on research in child psychology. The introductory one, by L. K. Frank, on research methods may interest teachers.

Baldwin, Bird T., and Larle J. Stecher, *The Psychology of the Preschool Child.* New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1924.

An early account of the research at the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station — interesting as pioneer work. Read Chapter One and look at the pictures, for otherwise there is not much of more than historical interest. Baldwin's growth tables are widely used at the standard norms for height and weight.

Beverly, Bert I., M.D., *In Defense of Children.* New York, John Day Company, 1941.

A very readable book written by an M.D. who has the right feeling for children. Many subjects are discussed according to trains of thought rather than age levels or logic, but new ideas

are presented in an appealing form. It is perhaps the best introductory book to give to parents and teachers to initiate them to viewpoints of dynamic psychology without going into their Freudian origin.

Breckenridge, Marian E., and E. Lee Vincent, *Child Development: Physical and Psychological Growth Through the School Years.* Philadelphia, Saunders, 1943.

The last word in a book on child development. Crammed with knowledge, facts, statistics, reports on research and a bibliography of 806 titles. It contains much that a teacher should know, but little that will help her to get along with children in the nursery school.

Carmichael, Leonard (ed.), *Manual of Child Psychology.* New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1946.

Nineteen psychologists, including Terman, Jones, Jersild, Gesell, and Anderson have written up findings of research for this volume. However, this is very specialized reading, and will probably be of very little general interest to the teacher.

Dreikurs, Rudolph, *The Challenge of Parenthood.* New York, Duell, Sloan, and Pearce, 1948.

The latest and by far the best book on how to handle children. A "must" book for teachers, who can recommend it very highly to parents.

Freud, Anna, and Dorothy T. Burlingham, *War and Children.* New York, International University Press, 1943.

An interesting little book giving an account of the psychological effect of war on the children of London.

Gesell, Arnold, M.D., and Frances L. Ilg, M.D., *The Infant and Child in the Culture of Today: The Guidance of Development in Home and Nursery School.* New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943.

A scientifically documented account of the development of preschool age children based on an enormous amount of observations — of a very restricted type — which gives parents and teachers a picture of how children behave, but does not try to explain why they behave as they do. Since Gesell does not even grant the possibility of unconscious motivations, he stands a firm defender of the behavioristic approach. This book reassures mothers that their babies are normal, but offers no help

for dealing with neurotic behavior or with behavior problems, and almost seems to deny their existence, because Gesell was able to exclude from his observations behavior that is not readily interpreted on a behavioristic basis. While teachers will find in this book certain important facts about the results of this Yale study, and some valuable developmental data, much of the information will have no direct application in the public nursery school.

Gesell, Arnold, M.D., and Helen Thompson, *The Psychology of Early Growth.* New York, The Macmillan Company, 1938.

Another detailed report of work done at Yale. It will not interest most teachers, and the findings are also reported in the later book.

Gesell, Arnold, M.D., and others, *The First Five Years of Life.* New York, Harper and Brothers, 1940.

Gesell is Froebel's complete opposite. He divides the child into his "motor," "adaptive," "language," and "personal-social" aspects. The book contains a detailed account of the Yale researches, most of which is given in *Infant and Child in the Culture of Today.*

Griffiths, Ruth, *Imagination in Early Childhood.* London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Company, Limited, 1945.

Difficult but rewarding reading about research findings.

Isaacs, Susan, *Childhood and After.* London, Routledge, and Kegan Paul, Limited, 1948.

Read Chapter 5 on the value of nursery education.

Isaacs, Susan, *Intellectual Growth in Young Children.* New York, Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1930.

This companion book to *Emotional Development of Young Children* is essential reading.

Isaacs, Susan, *Social Development of Young Children: A Study of Beginnings.* New York, Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1933.

Twelve years ago this book was returned to the publisher by a child development institute as "unreadable." Today it is frequently listed in bibliographies; but at the time it was issued, the public was not ready for its extreme Freudian viewpoint. Because it is a less prejudiced and undeleted record of the behavior of children than most that are available, it is one of our most valuable sources of material.

Isaacs, Susan, *The Nursery Years.* New York, Vanguard, 1937.
A book for parents, but useful for teachers, too. A brief account of the preschool child based on extensive study of children as well as a love and understanding of them.

Jersild, Arthur T., *Child Psychology,* revised edition. New York, Prentice-Hall, 1940.
This is the kind of book that leads teachers completely astray because it speaks in an authoritative tone but does not contribute to a deeper understanding. It gives endless, superficial intellectual information which only helps to erect barriers between teacher and children. The same can be said of *Children's Fears* by the same author.

Lerrigo, Marion, *Children Can Help Themselves.* New York, The Macmillan Company, 1943.
An idealized and over-simplified effort to make child-raising look easy.

Murchison-Wooster, Carl (ed.), *Handbook of Child Psychology.* Dubuque, Iowa, Clarke University Press, 1933.
This large book reports research psychology in great detail and requires considerable reading concentration. Articles by Charlotte Bühler and Jean Piaget, two leading research workers in child psychology, are to be found here.

Rand, W., M. Sweeney, and E. L. Vincent, *Growth and Development of the Young Child,* second revised edition. Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders, 1926.
A standard work on the subject. It can serve as a reference book for information, but not as a source of material giving insight into dynamic behavior.

Stolz, Lois Meek, *Your Child's Growth and Development.* Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1940.
An attractive picture book with meager text which offers advice to parents on ways to handle various developmental problems.

Wickes, Frances G., *The Inner World of Childhood.* New York, B. Appleton and Company, 1927.
This is one of the few books on child psychology written from the Jungian rather than the Freudian point of view. Mrs. Wickes is an analyst who has also had years of experience with groups of small children in school. The book contains material

showing profound insight into the complexities of children's emotions.

Winn, Ralph B. (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Child Guidance.* New York, The Philosophical Library, 1943.

Short articles by more than 70 authorities on 383 subjects from "Ability" to "Wishful Thinking." This book contains a lot of interesting information and bibliographies.

Wolff, Werner, *Personality of the Pre-School Child: The Child's Search for His Self.* New York, Grune and Stratton, 1946.

Dr. Wolff attempts to combine the research method with interpretation on the basis of "depth psychology." He has interesting things to say, but despite his emphasis on depth psychology he is resistant to the psychoanalytic approach. The book is recommended as stimulating but difficult reading.

Woodcock, Louise P., *Life and Ways of the Two-Year-Old.* New York, Dutton, 1941.

An understanding document of actual behavior of children by a teacher with good feeling and ability to observe significant behavior.

When Children Ask About Sex (pamphlet), written and published by the staff of the Child Study Association of America, New York, 1943.

This is the best pamphlet on this subject.

8

The Program

By PROGRAM we mean the order of the day's events — the general schedule. The one used in the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association's schools is the same as that used in Vallejo, where it was worked out and adopted after considerable experimentation. Each school must make a program which fits its clientele; but in general the program needs of the children are similar. In university schools which do not have nap or lunch, a program is sometimes set up to create "learning situations" for teachers as well as children, but such programs cannot be used as patterns for the morning of an eleven-hour day school where practical needs are given first consideration.

Our program begins when the doors open just before seven in the morning, and ends when the building is locked up at night. Thus the program includes the entire day's happenings in the school — the routines and activities of the children as well as administration. By "routines" we mean the behavior of the children in connection with the ever recurring situations of their eating, sleeping, and toileting. "Activities" we call the various kinds of play and work-play that the children do at certain periods throughout the day. To describe the program is to tell the general order of the day's events. This chapter will give you that picture.

The building is unlocked in the morning by a teacher. The custodian who attends the furnace is not allowed to unlock the nursery school so that nobody can leave a child in the building before a teacher has arrived. Usually the head teacher takes the

earliest teaching shift and opens up. Some children may be waiting at the door, while others will not come until ten o'clock. Each child must have a health inspection before he is admitted for the day. One teacher must do this, as well as accept payment of fees from parents. Therefore, another teacher must be on duty, if many children arrive early, to supervise the morning rest period with which the day begins.

The following schedule shows the time allowances for the various phases of the program, including the execution of duties by the staff members. This schedule is used in all our schools.

Daily Program Schedule

7:00–10:00	Arrival and health inspection of all children.
7:00– 8:20	Rest on cots for all children.
8:20– 8:30	Toileting for all children.
8:30– 9:00	Morning cereal for all children.
9:00– 9:30	All children on playground, weather permitting.
9:30	Cod-liver oil and juice.
9:30–11:30	Choice of indoor or outdoor activities.
9:45–10:15	Toileting for two-year-old children.
10:45–11:05	Rest on cots for two-year-old children.
11:30–11:45	All children on playground, weather permitting. Morning children go home.
11:45–12:15	Toileting and storytelling for all children.
12:15– 1:00	Lunch for children and staff. Morning children who stay for lunch go home.
12:45– 3:00	Toileting and nap for all children.
3:00– 3:30	Toileting for all children.
3:15– 3:30	Nourishment for children.
4:00	Children who stay from 9:00 to 4:00 go home.
3:00– 6:00	Indoor and outdoor activities.

Morning Program

There are several reasons for the morning rest which is provided for all children between 7:00 and 8:20. Children who have not had a good night's sleep have an opportunity to rest before becoming active; those who sleep late at home and come in later do not miss any interesting activities. The early morning is always chilly or

cold in California, and the schoolrooms also are often chilly — so this early rest period is more comfortable than indoor or outdoor play. The children accept it willingly. If children rest after the morning cereal or before lunch, they miss being outdoors when the sun is most likely to be shining. If the children have an indoor play period when they first come and then rest during the middle of the morning, the play materials must be put away and the room cleared for beds twice in one morning.

After a routine toileting period, the morning cereal and milk are served at 8:30. Cod-liver oil and fruit juice are given later, at 9:30, when more children will be present to benefit from this valuable nutrition.

Outdoor play comes next unless it is raining or the playground is very wet. Fog and wind are not harmful — they are more disagreeable to the teachers than to the children. In very unpleasant weather all the children can come back in at 9:30 if they like; in good weather only a minority will promptly choose the indoor activities offered at that time. For a number of reasons it is very important that all children go out at 9:00. They are ready for vigorous activity at this time after a night's sleep, a morning rest, and a bowl of cereal. They need to run and jump and yell. The morning's fresh energy can be discharged better and more safely in the yard than in the room. There is also this consideration — that a child who is not well will usually show some signs of it at this time, whereas the eating and the rest periods may not have brought out the condition. The older children will soon become too active inside unless they first go out for a while. The teachers are usually the ones who don't want to go out, often because they are not dressed warmly enough and because they must do a lot of standing while the children are physically more active. Both teachers and children should wear proper clothing. In cold climates this program might not always be suitable, but for California it has many advantages. Having all the children outside also provides an opportunity for the housekeeper to clear the breakfast tables and to pick up the beds, and for the teacher to prepare the room for activities. Furthermore the enforced morning yard period gives every child a minimum exposure to the outdoor equipment and to all the other children. Finally, it affords the teacher an opportunity to select the children whom she may want to come indoors first without making her action too con-

spicuous. Although children sometimes make a request to stay in, and although teachers are reluctant to face wind and fog, everyone in our schools must go outdoors at 9:00 except for a newly enrolled or homesick child who is not forced to do so. Only when rain or mud prevents outdoor play, do the children go from the eating tables directly to the indoor activities.

Morning Activity Period

The activity period which is of greatest importance, whether indoors or out, is from 9:30 to 11:30. Activities should be set up so that every child has widely varied experiences during the period of a week or a month. A child who always wants to be inside should be helped toward participating in outdoor play and vice versa. This is the period for major activities in contrast to interim activities. "Major activities" we call those which should be carried on in a leisurely fashion, "interim activities" those which can go on during brief intervals. Painting at the easel, for instance, is not good interim activity because a child should not be sent away from the easel by the clock. He should leave it of his own accord when he feels he is finished. Peg boards, beads, and books that have been seen many times are good interim activity materials for there is usually less resistance to giving them up when the schedule requires.

When the weather is good for long stretches at a time, there is no need to encourage children to play outdoors during these two hours. In the winter season when days of rain call for long hours of indoor activities, it may be well to encourage more outdoor play on the sunny days. Of course, even then the children usually do not need much urging for they appreciate the sun if there is enough outdoor equipment for everyone. But when either the indoor or outdoor program is understaffed or underequipped, good balance cannot be maintained.

It takes the varied skills of all the teachers to see to it that this morning indoor-outdoor period goes well. At least one good teacher must be inside and one outside. To decide which teacher goes out or stays in is the job of the head teacher who works through the room teachers, and to whom she may delegate the responsibility for these assignments. However, all teachers should have both indoor and outdoor experience, and they should learn to supervise either program equally well.

The outdoor activities may be defined as all the play that the outdoor equipment makes possible. The indoor activities are those which ordinarily take place inside. Efforts to transfer outdoor activities inside usually end in bedlam; therefore, we never bring heavy equipment in during bad weather. The proper working-out of this two-hour indoor-outdoor activity period depends on the number of staff members present, but there are minimum activities based on a minimum staff. Outdoors it means whatever is possible with the stationary equipment such as the jungle gym, the swings, and such portable equipment as the teacher may be able to obtain from the outside storage place; indoors, it means that the *doll corner*, *blocks*, *crayons*, *books*, *clay*, and *easel paints* are *always* available, for all these are easily supervised simultaneously by one teacher with a reasonable amount of skill, knowledge, and interest in her work. Music, dramatics, finger painting, peg boards, beads, construction work, nature study, excursions, and any other desirable activities can be added to this morning period when adequate teaching supervision is available. When a full teaching staff is not present, it is best to limit the activities to the few most easily controlled by the teachers on hand, or to have some new activity which is of such interest to all the children that it is easily supervised.

About 11:30 all children are sent outdoors again. This is usually a pleasant time of day. Everyone can get a final run, whoop, and holler out of his system before the toileting that precedes lunch. When it is raining, the children can put on their wraps and go out on the porch, thus clearing the room so that the housekeeper can make preparation for lunch. From 11:20 to 11:30 the room teacher gets the children to wind up their indoor play. Those who come in from the yard at the last minute are sent back outside and told it is too late to start any indoor play. This indoor-outdoor program divides the children so that there are not too many for the equipment and materials available either inside or out. The room and the playground are more easily managed if not crowded, and there is less strain on the children. A whole morning out-of-doors is too fatiguing; it means too much strenuous play. In San Francisco there is usually so much wind and chill in the shade and so much glare in the sun that hand activities out-of-doors are not very satisfactory; therefore, we never take indoor activities outside.

Routines

Routine toileting takes place for everyone between 11:45 and 12:15. Those who have been longest in the yard are usually ready to come in first. Anticipation of joining a circle for a story or for music is a good incentive for dispatch in the toilet room. A story or some singing before lunch is a quiet activity, sufficiently restful to precede eating. Many teachers believe a rest on cots is necessary, but perhaps this is only a traditional idea. If children who need it do not get a resting time until just before lunch, they will sometimes fall asleep and have to be awakened for lunch. If they do have the earlier rest, another one before lunch is not necessary. Enforced rest on the cots is not a good prelude to lunch. The story period, on the other hand, makes the children sit down and be quiet, and always puts them in an amiable frame of mind. Two rest periods a day seem to be accepted very well by most children but three are not. The beds are set down while the children are eating. In this fashion all floor space has been kept clear for play until the last minute before lunch.

Lunch is served at 12:15, followed by toileting and nap from 1:00 to 3:00. Between 3:00 and 4:00 every child is awake. The mid-afternoon nourishment period follows the nap, and fruit juice or milk, and crackers or cookies are served at this time. Lunch is scheduled as late as 12:15 so that the children will sleep later. This leaves a shorter afternoon of play; otherwise children would get too tired before going home at six. The hours set for their morning rest and their breakfast make this later lunch hour satisfactory.

When the weather is good, the afternoon activity period differs somewhat from that in the morning, although outdoor play is the best program. When it is bad, there are two long hours in which rested, active children need occupation, and there must be many things for them to do. Stories, music, and special activities are good for the indoor afternoon program. If necessary, all materials should be used to keep the children properly ocupied until they go home.

Program Flexibility

It is important that a program be followed carefully by clock time — not the teacher's head time. Children thrive under regularity,

but programing does not mean regimenting. When staff absences compel teachers to help with cooking or housework, it is a good plan to sacrifice on the housework and to substitute a simple menu for lunch so that the activity program will not be affected. The two-hour morning and afternoon activity periods give the children plenty of choice regarding occupation. However, they must not be permitted to decide when they eat or sleep; that should be definitely settled for them through strict adherence to the schedule.

Our program permits children to come into the school at any hour between 7:00 and 10:00 A.M. and to participate at once in a suitable situation. Those who come very early get a rest. If they were to play when they first came and a rest period were set up later in the morning, children who had got up late and did not need a rest period in the morning would not willingly accept it. Breakfast is early enough to be well out of the stomach by lunch time, but late enough to catch the child whose mother does not feed him at home and does not get him to school at an earlier hour.

The later lunch hour gives the children of the morning session a little longer time in school; they get the full benefit of the important part of the program of indoor-outdoor activities. These children who come for the morning only are ones whose homes can provide adequate physical care and nutrition, but in many cases cannot provide companionship of the right age level or access to good play equipment. Thus, the morning session child has only activities which the home cannot give, and he goes home for his rest and food. Because of the indoor-outdoor division of children, the morning session children can be added over and above the school's enrollment capacity for eating and sleeping. Thus the nursery school facilities are more fully utilized. There is no need to reorganize the program to accommodate these morning children, since they come and go at times when the schedule makes this convenient.

Selected Reading

Alschuler, Rose, *Essentials of Nursery Education.* Iowa City, University of Iowa, 1941.

A good statement of the basic aims of nursery education by a firm believer in the educational value of the nursery school.

While not a teacher herself, Mrs. Alschuler has been outstanding in promoting traditional nursery education at its best.

Wellman, Beth (ed.), *Essentials of Nursery Education.* Iowa City, National Association for Nursery Education, 1935.

This pamphlet gives twenty-five "needs of the child." It is an interesting statement of what is basic in nursery education. The revised edition of 1948 is not as good as the original edition.

9

Indoor Activities

In this chapter we shall talk about the proper use of the materials with which the children play indoors. Indoor activities always include simultaneous block building, easel painting, doll play, and the use of crayons, books, and clay. When the room is set up for indoor activities, these six things should always be available to the children. In addition, the following should be provided from time to time: colored chalk, finger paint, scissors, paste, collage, toys, beads, puzzles, peg boards, pencils, sand box, and musical instruments. Daily finger painting is highly desirable.

Selection and Use of Materials

The materials are the same for children of all ages, but children use them differently according to their developmental age and their abilities. Thus, the two-year-old will manipulate clay and perhaps make little objects or forms, while the five-year-old will definitely produce shapes and objects which correspond to his more mature mental and physical development. Likewise the eight-, ten-, or twenty-year-old using the same material will express the level of his development. The same may be said of blocks, crayons, and easel painting. They represent manipulative and creative materials from which any age level can derive achievement and satisfaction. In this respect these materials differ from beads, peg boards, puzzles, toys, and books, which are graded for specific age-level interests, and which are not suitable for creative expression.

If anyone ever says that children get tired of crayons, paints, and blocks, remember that this is no more true than is the statement that they get tired of eating, sleeping, and playing. However, they do get tired of anything and everything when proper scheduling and variety is not provided. In this regard they are not different from adults except that their attention span is shorter and their rest requirements greater.

One principle which must always be kept in mind in supervising the children's work is that we are not seeking a finished product; instead we are providing an opportunity for them to be occupied in a way that is meaningful. Verbal communication is somewhat inadequate at this age; therefore, we try to be guided by the child's response to materials and products as to what is satisfactory achievement for him. Thus when a child holds up a small blob of clay and says, "See my airplane!" we are satisfied that it is a representation of an airplane from his point of view, even though it may not correspond to the adult concept of an airplane.

Some of the materials used in nursery school have been developed as technical tools of nursery education during the last twenty years, but many of them are very old. Dolls, musical instruments, and toys are as old as civilization. A whole chapter could be written on the theory of the use of materials in modern nursery schools; but here we will give only practical instruction on their proper use. What constitutes proper use and misuse of materials is partly a matter of individual judgment, but there are two guides which are objective. The first is the inherent nature of the material, and the second is the nature of the group situation in which the materials are being used. To illustrate: it is possible to smear clay on a piece of paper and make some sort of "picture" which looks as much like a picture as any child may produce on an easel. However, the desire to make a picture can be well expressed by means of paints and crayons, which will not make three-dimensional objects. It is better to restrict the use of clay to the making of three-dimensional objects and the use of crayons and paint to making pictures. Children are likely to enter into any kind of experiment with any material, but when the effort is wasted because the intended effects are inherently impossible with the material used, emotional frustration and mental disorientation may result.

Whenever a new toy or material or experience is to be presented

to the children, they should be prepared for this by the teacher. She should tell them what is going to happen, and how they are expected to behave. Otherwise their behavior will be one of such enthusiastic response that confusion and unhappiness can result. Thus, for example, before bringing a new wagon on the scene she should tell them, arrange for everyone's taking a short turn with it, and see to it that no one feels too deprived. When a new wagon is suddenly brought into the yard, it may only cause quarreling because the pressure for turns gets out of control. No matter how trivial the novelty or the change in a routine, the proper preparation for it by the teacher is very helpful, both for the group and for the single child.

As for the second consideration, the needs of the group must always be given as much consideration as the needs of the individual. Again, a whole chapter could be written on this subject since the problem of the individual versus the group is one of the major problems of modern civilization. So far as nursery school is concerned, I am convinced that it is possible only accidentally to provide good experiences for the individual unless the group needs are first taken care of properly. Many restrictions are placed on the use of materials by any one child solely to prevent other members of the group from being too restricted in their own use of the materials. For example, block building must be confined to the floor area for blocks, not spread out to the book table, the doll corner, or the toilet (this is where the children will inevitably continue with block play if allowed to do so). The spirit in which controls are set up and exercised will determine the favorable or unfavorable response of children to the materials. For anyone wondering whether or not nursery schools possess an educational value, it should be pointed out that learning the proper use of materials is surely an essential educational process.

A third consideration governing the use of materials in our nursery schools pertains to teachers. Because the teachers and student teachers are usually neither highly trained technicians nor teacher artists, some of the rules presented in this chapter have been formulated to meet teacher limitations. There has been a tendency for the Lanham nursery schools to try to set up as standards for beginning and untrained teachers, methods and skills which only the most gifted teacher can apply. I believe that it is better to set for

inexperienced teachers a lesser task which they can do well, than a greater one which they will do badly. This involves some restrictions on teachers, children, and materials which may not be ideal; but in our experience the end result has been more actual freedom for teachers and children than when everyone is struggling for perfection.

Besides keeping in mind constantly that we are not after end products that please adults but are seeking those that please the children, we must always remember one other principle: that in the activity program, so far as possible, the child's interest should decide what he does with the materials and how he does it. The room must always be set up for the six major activities and any others that may be provided, and the child must be *free to go from one to the other as his own attention span dictates.* A child's attention span may vary from extremes of one minute to nearly an hour, though, except for the doll corner, the attention span is usually considerably under an hour. Where a child flits from spot to spot and does nothing, one of two things may be wrong — the set-up of the situation may be bad, or he may be emotionally disturbed. We shall discuss the set-up in this chapter, and emotional disturbances will be taken up in Chapter 13.

Use of Blocks

Blocks are excellent material for both individual and group play. A child may build by himself, or two or more children may get together to produce a structure. Even if three children are erecting separate buildings, there may be some kind of communication and sociability between them that make block building social as well as individual. The younger the child, the more individual the play tends to be. Older children sometimes have group constructions that carry over from one day to the next in schools where floor space permits. Block building develops muscular activity and coördination, a sense of balance and design, and a feeling for number, weight, size, and shape. Blocks also lend themselves to dramatic play. Thus, it is very important to have blocks in every school, and to see that the children use them to full advantage.

The blocks should be put in a low cupboard for easy access, and arranged according to size and shape in sections of the cupboard.

The cupboards must be placed adjacent to plenty of clear floor space at a spot which is not a traffic center. The teacher must keep reminding the children not to start building directly in front of the cupboard where they would obstruct the access of other children to the source of supply. When a child starts to build too close to the cupboard, help him move the blocks to an area that is more suitable and make sure that you rearrange the blocks exactly as he had them placed. When he does not want to have them moved, tell him that the other children will knock them over as they come to get blocks out of the cupboard. This will usually reconcile him to the change.

We make suggestions and comments about block building more freely than we do with painting and clay. However, we try to leave the child free to think out his own work and not to rely on the teacher. We want him to take his own time and learn by making his own mistakes and make suggestions only when he is frustrated by his own mistakes. Children sometimes have to be shown how to make the foundation of the structure solid and how to close cracks that will cause the structure to fall down if it is built up higher. If the child does not take readily to suggestions about strong building, we do not insist, for it means that he is not ready for that aspect of satisfaction from block building. Never make suggestions that have to do with design; but when you see a child place a block in such a fashion that it may cause the whole structure to fall down, you may point this out to him. If he says that he doesn't care, let it go.

Our rules for the children regarding the use of blocks are:

1. Floor blocks must stay in the block area and not be carried around to the tables and the doll corner.
2. Blocks may not be used for guns, marching games, or to throw around the room.
3. Knocking down another child's building is not permitted.
4. A child must not be compelled to put away the blocks.

These rules need some explanations. Children like to take the blocks to the doll corner to use them imaginatively for all kinds of things. But if the doll corner has enough equipment, they are not deprived by the exclusion of the blocks. Also, the supply of blocks is usually limited, and the blocks would be missed for building pur-

poses. Dramatic play with the blocks is restricted to their movement on or near the floor in the block building area. We discourage gun play of all kinds for a number of reasons; in any case, the noise and the disruption of the room's activities when blocks are used as guns and marching games more than offset any possible pleasure the children might gain from such use of the blocks. The teacher should watch very carefully to see that a destructive child does not dash into the block area to wreck the work and disturb the concentration of the children. Constant vigilance is the only way to prevent this. A child should be permitted, however, to make a big slam-bang with his own construction, provided it does not wreck some other child's, endanger other children, or occur to the exclusion of construction. Of course, this should not include kicking the blocks around the floor afterwards. The teacher should see to it that stray blocks left scattered around the floor are put back in the cupboard or the pile that some child is using. A child may bring a reasonably large pile of blocks from the cupboard where he is working, but he must not hoard a large supply. It is good to have children help put the blocks away when clean-up time comes, although the teacher and housekeeper will do the greater part of the work. When the time comes to put blocks away, children are usually tired and possibly a little fed up with block building, and considerable pressure would have to be exerted to make them put blocks back. There are times when good results are obtained by asking an extremely messy older child to help put something away. If no issue is made of it, he comes to understand the practical value of order. If the putting away is enforced as a lesson in neatness, however, the result will be that quite a few children will stay away from the blocks. These consequences would be much more difficult for the teacher to cope with than it would be for her to pick up the blocks herself, because she would have built a barrier between the children and the material that keeps them happily occupied. If there is any question of moral laxness in allowing the children to play with blocks without having to put them away, it is merely a result of the teacher's conviction that this is a moral issue. One would assume that it does a child no more harm to play with blocks which he does not put away than to eat out of a dish which he does not wipe. From the age-level standpoint it is as possible for these children to wipe dishes as it is for them to put away

blocks. However, adult supervision in block building isn't as onerous as it would be in dish washing, and therefore we make no moral issue of it. For many children one of the greatest joys of nursery school is the fact that they are not nagged or forced to pick up after themselves. As everyone knows, cleaning up the mess after productive and creative work is always something of a chore; when it is made a moral issue besides, inhibition of spontaneous energy can easily result. The child under six is not orderly. He has so many difficult lessons to learn, that to stress the problem of picking up after himself may produce nervous tensions that far outweigh the value of the training in orderliness. Moreover, a little later on, precision and order can become fascinating and satisfying achievements if they have not been imposed too early.

Table Activities

Crayons are a valuable material in nursery school because their use teaches children to coördinate the hand muscles and to manipulate a small object with purpose. Through crayons, too, they learn to appreciate color and design. In addition, they seem to get considerable emotional release from scribbles and random movements on the paper. Crayoning is a quiet activity at which the children can sit down and rest their back and leg muscles. Although the work is individual, it may take place in a setting with several children doing the same work, and therefore is partly social.

It is important to have plenty of crayons in all colors ready for use. They can be placed on the tables by the teacher, or left on low shelves where the older children can get them. For some of the children, broken pieces are more satisfactory than the full-size crayons, but pieces under one inch should be thrown away. The crayons should be community property at the table and not given out as individual sets. This is a very good means of teaching coöperative use of materials when there are plenty of all colors to go around. Newsprint or cheap drawing paper can be used. It should never be smaller than 8½ inches by 11 inches, otherwise movements are too restricted. Older children get pleasure from using larger sheets. When larger paper is used, remember that each table must take only six children.

Our rules governing the use of crayons are very few:

1. Marking on tables, chairs, or floors is not permitted.
2. Crayons may not be taken away from the table or put in the pockets.
3. All crayoning is to be done at a table while sitting on a chair — not lying on the floor.
4. Drawing on another child's paper is not permitted.

We never ask the children what their drawings represent, or comment upon what the drawing looks like. We show admiration only by making some remark that is both sincere and noncommittal, such as "This is very interesting"; "Your colors look very pretty"; or "I like the way this is turning out." Always say something favorable and approving, but never try to influence a child's drawing in the direction of adult standards. *Teachers must never draw on a child's drawing or make drawings of their own at the table with them.* It is all right to write the child's name and the date on the drawing, as well as the title of the picture, if he gives one. All drawings are saved. When a child is dissatisfied with his work and wants to throw it in the wastebasket, we say that we like it and want to save it. If he wants to, he may put his drawing in his locker at once, to preserve it to take home to show his parents.

Wet or dry chalk is used in the same manner as crayons. Though all our materials are dyed with nonpoisonous substances, we make an effort to see that children do not put them in their mouths. The teacher may wet the paper in a flat pan of water, or may let the children brush the water on with a 1½-inch or 2-inch paintbrush, or do this for them. For wet chalk work, the table should be covered with newspaper or oilcloth.

Books are included in nursery school materials because they provide quiet individual occupation and are valuable in themselves. They help to increase a child's knowledge of objects, events, and the world in general; they also develop his appreciation of color and his imagination.

Books, to repeat, are of two kinds — those that are available to the children at all times, and those that are used only under teacher supervision. Children's books should be put on a low shelf or table where the children can get them as they wish, and "teacher-controlled" books should be on a high shelf where they are not accessible to the children. Newly purchased and expensive books

should be teacher-controlled and should be used by her for story-telling. Such books are given to the children only when the situation guarantees that the books will not be mutilated, for instance, at the end of the day when only a few children are present and the teacher can keep her eye on the child's use of the book. Books which are worn and shabby go on the children's shelf. There should always be a large supply of school-made scrapbooks ready to suffer the demolishment which is inevitable when children are allowed to enjoy books freely. During school hours teachers and student teachers are not supposed to look at the books for their own enjoyment. They do not read the stories to individual children except late in the day when this can be done without neglecting any other children. Our rules regarding the use of the children's books are:

1. There should be no willful destruction of books.
2. Books must stay on the table or shelf, they may not be put on the floor.
3. Only one book at a time for a child.

Clay, like crayons and paints, develops the use of hand muscles. Like crayoning, clay work is primarily individual, but imbedded in a social situation at the table. It is quiet work that calls for the use of imagination. Clay work encourages the release of emotional tensions.

Clay tables should always be covered with oilcloth; thus individual boards are not necessary. The teacher should place balls of clay on the table at the individual places so that each child begins with an allotted amount of material. If he needs more, the teacher should get him another ball, either from the clay jar or from some other child's abandoned allotment. The rules for clay are:

1. Clay must not be taken away from the table or thrown about the room.
2. No hoarding of supplies and no grabbing from others.
3. No pounding of the clay.
4. No interfering with another child's clay work.
5. Objects may not be imbedded in the clay.
6. The clay is not to be eaten or stuck on the body for adornment.

As with paints and crayons, we do not offer any suggestions about what to make, and again, the teacher never models an object for the child. We give the same kind of noncommittal approval and encouragement as with painting and crayoning. It is permissible to show the oldest children how to use the material by squeezing out of the ball of clay a leg, or an arm, or a head when the child is ready for this, but such direction is not appropriate for the twos and threes. When the children start to pound the clay, we always say, "Just press, don't pound." The reason for this is that pounding clay soon deteriorates into an activity more suitable for the bingo beds, and prevents the proper use of clay as a modeling medium. When you show the children how to press out the clay quietly, they get the results they want without the distraction of the noise and the excitement from the pounding.

If a child wants very much to save an object, this can be done, but we do not encourage the taking home of clay objects because they break easily and make a dirty mess both in the lockers and at home. Usually they are not appreciated by the parents. Good clay is too expensive not to be used over and over. Furthermore, the preservation of an object puts too much emphasis on the product, which, with young children, is of negligible value. The important thing is that they should have the clay to work with every day. Therefore, at the end of the period the housekeeper or teacher (with the children helping if they want to) rolls the clay up again into balls, approximately the size of a small apple. Then she pushes a hole with her thumb about an inch down into the ball and puts the ball back into the clay jar after having the holes filled with water. The water will be absorbed by the ball; and the following day the clay will have the proper texture for use. Or the teacher can put the clay in the jar first and later make the holes and fill them with water when she has more time, usually during the sleep period. If the clay is neglected for even one day, it may get too hard for use. A bigger hole with more water will then bring it to the right consistency over the next night. If it becomes too soft, the water should be omitted for one night. With the jar well covered by a damp cloth, the clay will keep all right over the weekend. A good supply of well-mixed clay available at all times is an earmark of a good nursery school.

The children's fingers are the best tools for the clay; occasionally

they may use their elbows or their chins, but feet are, of course, not allowed. We let them have tongue blades for marking and cutting the clay; half a tongue blade with the rounded end is enough for each child.

Do not expect much in the way of a product for the children turn out mostly balls, worms, pancakes, and bowls. Some results are "abstract"; some may resemble recognizable objects. One of their favorites is "pooh pooh," and the work at the clay table may be wrecked by the hilarity and distraction which follow the children's discovery that the teacher is shocked by the "pooh pooh" balls. A skillful teacher will not show shock or disgust, but will make a remark such as, "You are a big boy; you could make something besides 'pooh pooh' balls."

Some commercial products consisting of clay suspended in oil are excellent for nursery school, and they have the advantage of being cleaner than clay. Pieces that get on the floor can be picked up readily, and do not have to be swept up. However, it is quite hard compared with clay. The children cannot make as good products with it; yet, when they are given a choice between clay and plastilene, they will often choose the latter. We use plastilene only occasionally late in the afternoon, or when the teacher does not wish to disturb the clay set for the next day or when the difference in texture seems to provide a renewed interest.

Painting

Easel painting and finger painting are the most satisfying activities we have in the nursery school. Children never tire of them. The "paintings" they turn out may not look like much at first; but after having taught over a period of years, you will come to value them and enjoy looking at them.

Painting teaches appreciation of color and design, allows for manipulation and coördination of hand and eye muscles, and is an excellent constructive outlet for emotional conflicts and tensions. It is always individual work, never a group activity. Painting is a good medium for the expression of the introvert side of the child and is of the greatest importance for bringing psychological balance into the highly extrovert nursery school atmosphere.

Our rules regarding easel painting are:

1. One child at a time paints at an easel and other children should generally be asked not to stand by to watch or assist; this will not prevent a certain spontaneous sociability, but will prevent the disturbing type.
2. Children may not mix colors in the glasses.
3. Each brush goes back into the color where it belongs.
4. Children may not walk around the room with a paint brush.
5. No painting of the easel, floor, furniture, or people's clothes or faces.
6. The teacher removes the paintings and provides the new paper.

Good painting results only under favorable conditions. It is the teacher's responsibility to see that the materials are ready and the atmosphere conducive to painting. First of all, the easel paints should be ready when the children come in at 9:30 for the morning activity period. We do not have the easels ready before this time because the rest and the breakfast should occupy the children, and we do not want them distracted by having the easels set up. One easel for ten children is a minimum, one for six or seven is better. Easels should have clean paper, clean paint in clean glasses, and clean brushes. One easel should have the one-half sheets of newsprint on it, another the quarter sheets. Some children like to make big paintings, others want to make small ones. We use only the two sizes indicated above, but smaller than quarter sheets of paper could be used under certain circumstances. Plenty of paper can be put on the easel at a time if two small brads are nailed into the easel and the paper slipped over these. If only a few sheets at a time are put up with thumb tacks, it is a chore to keep a sufficient supply. Painting paper is always used on one side only; drawing paper may be turned over and used on both sides. The floor and the easels should be protected with newspaper or oilcloth, so that there will not be too much of a mess to clean up. There must be a place to put finished paintings until they are dry. Since easel painting materials are easy to take care of, there is no excuse for not having properly prepared materials available every day.

Some of the children are able to remove their paintings and to get new paper by themselves; but since a number of them cannot

do this, it is better to have this task teacher-controlled without being too rigid about it. We do not let the children sit on chairs while they paint because we keep our easels at standing posture height. We encourage the use of aprons but do not insist on them, for sometimes a child who has already started painting, if interrupted to put on an apron, will say that he no longer wants to paint. The paint is easily washed out of clothes, and it doesn't matter if some gets on the floor.

Children should be taught one technique only, namely, how to wipe the brush on the edge of the glass before applying it to the paper. Even this is not stressed, because the use of a dripping brush seems to bring satisfaction to some children. We do not teach any other technique, and we make no suggestions about how to use the colors. We never ask what the painting represents and say only approving words, whatever smudges the children may turn out. We allow them to paint with either hand, even occasionally with two hands and two brushes, although the latter is generally discouraged.

A child will often make an attractive painting and then blot it out using every color available until it turns into one dark smudge. We sometimes try to rescue a painting before it is smudged by saying, "That is a very nice painting. I would like to hang that up on the wall. Shall I take it off the easel now?" If the child says, "Yes," go ahead; but if he does not want this, do not insist, but let him smudge it. The smudging may be a very important part of his satisfaction in painting. Possibly we should never try to "rescue" a painting, but sometimes the temptation is too strong. We save all paintings. When you remove a painting, write the name and date on the back of it; if the child volunteers a title, put that on, too. As soon as a child leaves the easel, his painting should be taken off so that another child won't come up and paint over it. If you think a child has left the easel before he is really through, ask him whether he is through before you remove the painting. Everyone is allowed to stay at the easel as long as he wants to and to make as many pictures at one session as he likes. If someone wants to paint practically all morning, an extra easel should be provided so that the others are not deprived of their chance.

The paint must be properly mixed, and as a rule a teacher does this. Have the teacher with the best eye for color mix the paints. Student teachers usually are not reliable enough for this chore, but

they should be shown how to do it. A mixture of half paint and half water is about right. The paint should go in the glass first and the water added gradually. Barrel tumblers make the best paint glasses because they do not tip easily. Milk cartons have rough edges and turn over too easily. The glass must be absolutely clean because dried paint on the edges keeps the brushes from wiping neatly and spoils their good lines. Only enough paint for one day is mixed at a time. Whatever may be left over in a glass is poured into a fresh glass and saved for the next day. To this more paint of the same color can be added, or two or more colors can be put together to make a new one, or all of them put together to make a brown mixture. It is important for good effects to mix good color combinations. Colors that go well with those on the walls and furniture will "hang" the most effectively. Each easel should have three colors as a minimum and six as a maximum. An exception is made where a young two does better with only one color. Three colors can be on one easel and three on another, and the children can trade; or three can be on an easel and three on a shelf for the teacher to give out upon request. Yellow, red, blue, and green colors should be most frequently available. The other colors can be rotated. Red is the color best used to express outgoing feeling, and children have plenty of that to get out. Yellow seems to express ingoing feeling; green and blue are good for unemotional representations. Black and brown are considered colors symbolic of frustration and aggression and children like to use them.

Cleaning the easels is scheduled for the student teachers at 4:15 every day. The cleaning should not take place before this time. A clean easel can be described as one which has no spilled paint on it, either on the edges or down in the box that holds the paint jars. If the easel is well surfaced with a good enamel paint, it is not difficult to clean. The rags which are used to clean easels should be kept for that purpose only; and another rag or sponge should be at hand to wipe up any paint spilled on the floor by accident.

All four- and five-year-old children should have the opportunity to paint every day, and the three-year-olds likewise if they are separated from the two-year-olds. Twos can and do enjoy painting; where supervision is adequate, this can be a meaningful activity for them. However, two-year-olds will quickly mess up the room, if easels are available during the whole activity period without plenty

of supervision. Therefore, the paints for them should be kept on a shelf, and placed on the easels only when there is adequate teacher supervision. A two-year-old is not being deprived if he is not allowed to paint; he is barely beginning to be able to use this medium. The older children, however, are definitely deprived if painting materials are not readily available.

Most of the paintings turned out by children in nursery school can be called smearings or "abstractions." Five-year-olds begin to do representational painting which can be identified by adults; but the content they are intended to have is still expressed in predominantly symbolic form. The symbolism of children's paintings is a fascinating subject. Quite a bit of interest has been shown recently in the interpretation of the hidden and symbolic meanings of children's paintings. As teachers we do not have to be sophisticated in regard to this subject. We need only provide good conditions in which the child can work, and we must have respect for what he is doing. Since we are not called upon to do any teaching of painting techniques, the child is left free to express what he likes. That painting brings emotional satisfaction is demonstrated by the concentration with which children work, the expressions on their faces while they work, and the feelings of satisfaction that they show when the work is finished. Paint is an especially attractive material for introvert children. Some children take a little while until they feel at ease while painting and acquire an attitude of seriousness toward their own work. If you can give encouragement by saying, "That looks like the beginning of a nice painting," you can build up self-confidence which will produce the concentration needed to turn out good painting. Do not feel called upon to react to the children's products as if they were "works of art." Rather try to understand that the painting experiences of children lay the foundation for their relation to certain materials and techniques, as well as for their capacity to enjoy art when they grow up.

Finger painting is such a joy to the children that we have it daily. Offered frequently, it is much less trouble to supervise than if it is practiced so rarely that the children get excited about it. Finger painting also teaches enjoyment of color, texture, design; and it brings into play the coördination of finger, eye, arm, and back muscles. It provides emotional release for the child who has been

kept "too clean" in that he can play with a messy, moist material in an approved manner and produce results which are often delightful in form and color. A typical illustration is the little girl who said, whenever she put her hands into the blobs of paint, "My, that feels good." Children who have been brought up too nicely often find it difficult to get their hands into the paint; it is a good thing for them to learn to do so. Two-year-olds are more reluctant than three- or four-year-olds to handle the paint.

Like everything else, finger painting will go well if the set-up is correct and the teacher knows what she is supposed to do. At least four children should be allowed to work at once. A skillful teacher can supervise this as well as other room activities if finger painting is not a novelty. Two teachers are required to take care of two tables of finger painting and the other room activities. Treated as a routine activity, the one to ten teacher-children ratio can be maintained without any difficulty once the initial fear has been overcome. Varnished tables should be covered with an oilcloth which is to be kept damp by wiping it off before each fresh piece of paper is placed. It must never be allowed to get wrinkled or creased since this will show in the finished painting. The painting paper should be at least 12 by 15 inches and not larger than 15 by 18 inches. Then it is large enough for the full use of arm muscles and there is room for six children at a table. A roll of butcher's paper can be purchased from the butcher and cut into proper sizes, or sheets of smooth wrapping paper can be bought from a paper supply house. While the children are painting, the jars of paint are placed in the middle of the tables or on a near-by shelf. A bucket of water and a roll of paper towels should be handy on the floor, and the rack for drying the paintings not too far away. The cook makes the finger paint each morning according to the following recipe which we have found to be the most satisfactory: Take 2 cups of flour and add 2 teaspoons of salt, then pour in 2¼ cups of cold water gradually and beat the mixture with an egg beater until it is smooth. Add 2 cups of hot water and boil it until it becomes clear. Beat until smooth, and then mix in the food dye coloring.

Our rules for finger painting are:

1. Aprons must be worn.
2. The teacher wets the paper. She can put the paint on the

paper, or upon request give the spoonfuls of paint to the child to let him place it as he wishes.

3. The paint must be kept on the paper as much as possible and not smeared too much on the table covering.

4. Paint must not be smeared on furniture, floor, or on other children or teachers, nor may it be eaten.

5. Each child may paint only on his own piece of paper.

6. A child must not get his hair or his face into the paint. He may use his arms up to the elbows.

7. Painting may be done only from a standing position — not sitting down. This facilitates matters and usually gives a better posture.

There are no finger painting techniques to be taught; much of finger painting is just smearing for the delight of smearing. But there are a number of techniques which the children will come to discover by themselves and to use through imitation of other children. Folding the paper on the corners or in half and pressing with the hands will result in interesting designs and textures. Using wrist and forearm will give circular and sweeping lines. Small bits of paint put on the paper in the form of a design and then smeared or folded over often make surprising effects.

When the child is ready to paint, we ask him what colors he wants and where he wants them placed. Do not insist upon his naming the colors, but give them their correct names as you put them on the paper. The teachers, not the children, take the paint from the jars, but the spoon of paint may be handed to the child to place as he wishes. Only four colors are usually given at one time; one tablespoon of each color usually provides plenty of paint for one "painting." Too little or too much paint can spoil the pictures. A minimum of three colors and a maximum of six should be available for the children to choose from. Children soon learn that mixing all the colors ends up in a muddy brown color and many of them are not interested in doing anything but this. The children should be allowed to pick up the blobs of color from the paper and mess them about in their hands so long as they hold them over the paper.

As in easel painting and clay work, we make no suggestions and comments concerning their work other than occasional remarks

which show our appreciation. Each child is allowed to paint as many pictures as he wants to, and to work on one painting as long as he wishes. In order to obtain good paintings it is sometimes necessary to catch a picture before it is spoiled by further working at it. If the teacher interrupts the child with, "Oh, that is lovely. I would like to hang it up," she may be able to get it, especially if she promises another piece of paper at once. It is a moot question whether or not this is ever justifiable, but if not too frequently done, it should do little if any harm. When a child is through painting, the teacher should have him go to the bucket and wash off most of the paint, wipe his hands with a paper towel, and then go to the toilet room to wash more thoroughly.

The older children are, of course, more easily supervised at the finger painting than the younger ones, and it is easier to arrange it for them. However, from the point of view of his emotional needs it is even more important for the two-year-old child to work with finger paints than it is for the five-year-old. Twos have the muscular coördination necessary to do finger painting with ease, whereas easel painting may be too hard. Also, they are at the age when their desire to put their hands into a mess is most acute. When you walk into a nursery schoolroom where children are playing with blocks, painting at easels, playing in the doll corner, and doing finger painting, you will find little evidence of behavior problems. When teachers are capable of directing all these activities simultaneously, the morning period is a joy to all. Children who have worked out their enthusiasms and frustrations with paints, blocks, and dolls, have good appetites and are ready for a long nap after the lunch.

The Doll Corner

It is better to have the "doll center" in a corner with two solid walls than in a space partitioned off by screens. Any space permanently allotted to the doll corner is put to good use. When the room is small and the beds take practically all of the space, the doll corner should be expandable by the use of portable screens. If floor area permits, the doll corner may be divided up into the rooms of a home, such as kitchen, bedroom, living room and bath, but with limited space, it can be a one-room apartment instead.

The contents of the doll corner are listed under materials. The

more detail, the more interesting the play, provided the toys are not too easily broken. There should be a standard arrangement of furniture and toys for the straightened-up doll corner, but the children should be allowed to move the furniture around so long as they have good dramatic play and do not just make a trash pile out of everything. The teacher should straighten up the doll corner before and after play, and also during play whenever it gets too disorderly.

The doll corner is for dramatic play, not for playing with blocks, books, or other materials. The children should not bring room materials into the corner, but there should be a few doll corner books and newspapers. The space in the corner is needed for the dramatic play; the playroom provides the proper place for the other activities. Doll play should be confined as much as possible to the doll corner, although this is sometimes hard to carry out. When children come out of the doll corner on their excursions to "work," the "grocery store," or the "park," they disturb those children who are occupied with other activities.

The doll corner is the most important center in the room for the children to work out their emotional tensions. Most frequently they play "home" and "school," occasionally "store." For the most part, they themselves, rather than the dolls, are the characters in the dramatic play. To put to bed as his "baby" a child would rather have another child than a doll. Interest in dolls grows stronger at a later age. Boys and girls are equally interested in the doll corner, in dressing up, and in playing both mother and father rôles. It is very important that the teacher keep her ideas out of the doll play and let the children express themselves freely. She should interfere only if a child is abused. However, when he is enjoying some punishment from another child, it may well be part of the play. Beating up the dolls should also be allowed, although we do not like to see the dolls destroyed. Just before the destructive state sets in, the teacher can say, "I don't think your baby is going to be bad any more," or "I think you have spanked him enough," and then try to rescue the doll from demolishment.

For a good job of supervision in the doll corner, the teacher's face must wear a deadpan expression, and she must seem to be dumb and blind. If the teacher can assume an absorbed or distracted look, the children will feel free to go ahead and act out

their real feelings, which is exactly what we want them to do. By listening carefully but unobtrusively, you will learn a great deal about the child's real feelings toward school, and other children. Sometimes in this fashion, you may obtain valuable information that can help you to understand how to treat the child in other situations. We allow in the doll corner as many children as want to play together unless the congestion results in crying. The huddle that sometimes ensues is part of the children's enjoyment. When the children try to draw the teacher into the play, she should be very careful about what she says, give noncommittal answers and encourage the children to feel free in expressing themselves. She should let them say whatever they like, and should pretend not to hear unless someone's feelings get too badly hurt and she must speak up for him. There are only a few things we prevent the children from doing. They must not put a peg or a stick into a child's rectum to "take temperature." Such play should be directed toward the dolls instead of the children, but it is important that they be allowed this play. If the bed is big enough, two children can be allowed to get into it together, they may sit on one chair together. However, we don't allow the children to undress themselves.

Many of you would be surprised and perhaps shocked at what goes on in the doll corner, because children imitate the behavior of their parents as they have seen them — smoking, drinking, and making love. We permit this kind of play in the supervised doll corner and ask teachers not to put their adult interpretations on the children's actions because this could lead to creating anxiety in some of the children. If a child realizes that the teacher thinks his imitating his parents is bad, then he may feel that his parents must be bad.

Smaller Materials and Toys

Beads can be used while children are sitting on the floor, or standing or sitting at the table. The weight of a long string hanging to the floor makes it hard to get the beads on, and the child has to be shown how to support the weight of the string on the floor or the table. The ends of the string may be tied to make a necklace which can be worn in the rooms, but beads are not worn outdoors because they get dirty. The teacher may show the child how to string beads. No rolling of beads on the floor and no throwing of beads

is permitted. Bead stringing develops coördination of hand and eye muscles and experience with color.

Peg boards may be used on the floor or at the table, with the children standing or sitting. The teacher may show the child how to use them and help him to get started. The pegs should be kept in a box near the board. When the materials are put away, the pegs are removed from the board. The pegs may not be thrown around the room, or put in the mouth. They should be kept on the table or in the box, not on the floor. Two children may work at one time on one board.

Puzzles should be set out on the table in front of chairs. All necessary pieces should be there and none from old broken puzzles. A child may have help with a puzzle occasionally if he asks for it, but may work on only one puzzle at a time. When the puzzles are put away, the pieces should be placed in their proper places. Children like familiar puzzles as well as new ones, and there is no harm in putting out the same puzzles day after day, since doing the ones they have mastered gives the children a feeling of accomplishment without too much effort. When the puzzles have become boring they should be put away for a few days.

Table blocks can be used either on the floor or on the table, but the table is preferable. The teacher makes few if any suggestions about building, but sees to it that the table space is clear to give the child room to build. Two children may build together, but individual work is better. Blocks must not be thrown around the room. When the child is through, he should put them back in the box or leave them on the table for the teacher to put back; he should not brush them off on the floor.

Poker chips. Children like to put these in the racks and take them out again. Playing with them is "busy work" that hasn't much importance, but sometimes proves helpful on a rainy day.

Nested blocks can be used on the table or the floor and filled with spools, beads, or pegs; the beads and pegs should be returned to their proper containers when the play is over.

Toys can be used in connection with block play, particularly the little wooden dolls, and the little trains and autos. They should always be put back in the materials cupboard and not in the block cupboard, because in the latter they discourage the starting off of block building.

Balls are best used outside, but may be rolled on the floor late in the day. They should not be thrown in the room. The same applies to beanbags.

Stuffed animals are available for the children to hold at any time during the activity period. They should be kept clean and should be thrown away when they cannot be cleaned any more. We do not allow the children to take the stuffed toys to bed, for this may build up a habit upon which the child becomes dependent.

Scissors and paste can be used for making little scrapbooks and collage by children from three and a half years up. Paste should be put in small, heavy saucedishes, one for every two children. The weight of the saucedish will hold it on the table while the paste is being taken out. If each child has a piece of cardboard holding paste, it slips around and more often than not he gets both hands sticky trying to get paste to work with. The use of fingers instead of brushes is recommended. Children may lick their fingers, but this should not degenerate into a paste-eating feast. Collage articles should be cut up by the teacher ahead of time, and left for the children to use with no comments from the adults. Let them mess up the articles as much as they want to, and use both sides of the paper if they desire. Scissors have to be very carefully supervised. The teacher must keep her eyes on the scissors at all times, and the scissors should never be left on the table when the teacher has to turn her back if any disturbed child is in the room. While the new plastic scissors will cut paper without cutting hair or cloth, they are still a menace to the eyes. Four- and five-year-old children enjoy making paper baskets, masks for Halloween, kites, ornaments for the Christmas tree, and various other paper items. All paper items should be of such simple construction that any child can turn out a finished product without the teacher's help. Keep in mind that cutting with scissors is not too important an activity in nursery school because there are so many other and better things the children can do, and furthermore, because they can do paper cutting at home.

Other Aspects of Our Program

In closing this discussion on indoor activities, we must also mention the things we do not include in our program. We never have the children fill in coloring books because this requires too much

restriction on hand and eye muscles, and because the art level of most coloring books is poor. We do not allow comic strip magazines because they are inappropriate for this age, nor do we permit other magazines around because of the unsuitable pictures and advertising. Pages taken from magazines by teachers are available for cutting. We allow no jump ropes, marbles, guns, or macaroni to string. The latter creates nervous tension. Carpentering, pounding with nails, and using saws is very dangerous except under a kind of supervision we are not likely to have. It can well be deferred until the child is six years of age. Personal toys may not be brought to school, for they cause quarreling and crying when they get broken. Miniature doll furniture is much more appropriate for children of school age. It is a mistake to have it in nursery school where children are apt to mistreat it. The same goes for miniature doll houses.

For several reasons, we do not have birthday cakes. First of all, the children can have a cake at home. Second, it is not wise to have cake for dessert two or three times a week as could easily happen with thirty children's birthdays. Third, the excitement over birthday cakes tends to disrupt the usual mealtime order. In our schools we recognize a child's birthday by having those children who care to make birthday cards for him. The child wears a birthday hat and a fancy paper jacket, and we sing a birthday song. In this way it is possible to give all children some extra attention on their birthdays without depending upon the mothers to bring a cake or bothering the cook to make one for fifty people.

We do not have games inside, nor do we allow any rough or heavy play, and we discourage running in the room as well as shouting. The children playing with the blocks have to be somewhat subdued in their noisemaking so that the room is sufficiently quiet for others to concentrate on their play or work. For the same reason we use our pounding boards outdoors. Except for a few days of rain, our children can always be outdoors part of the day and make all the noise they care to.

Holiday celebrations should be simple affairs in nursery school. The children do not really appreciate many of the elaborate things often arranged for them on these days (it is usually the teachers who enjoy them), and they become overstimulated and confused if too much is made of the occasion. For Thanksgiving and Christ-

mas, we have creamed turkey, we use holiday napkins, and have paper baskets with raisins. Our Christmas tree is always trimmed with pieces of paper that the children cut or tear and lay on the tree. The teacher can add a few more paper ornaments to give the tree some beauty and design, but we do not have tinsel ornaments, electric lights or things that the children may not touch freely. They are allowed to remove and replace the ornaments as they like. Poinsettias and holly in the room are appreciated by the children. A mounted finger painting made by a child is a very nice present to have him take home to his parents, although parents must be informed that children of this age do not make "presents." Valentines made by the children to give each other can be made several days ahead of February 14, put in a box and then given out. Every child must get some. At Easter time the older children can color eggs and make Easter cards and baskets. Washington's and Lincoln's Birthday, Armistice Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, and Memorial Day do not lend themselves to celebrations in the nursery school, but May Day baskets filled with flowers are suitable. Halloween can be recognized by having a Jack-o-Lantern and a decorated cake or cookies, but not too much should be made of this holiday. Cookies, appropriately decorated, and ice cream served for dessert are good to have for any holiday. It is a good idea to have the main school celebration of Christmas take place several days before December 25 to avoid overstimulation.

Selected Reading

Alschuler, Rose, *Painting and Personality*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1947.

Teachers will enjoy reading the first volume of this book, but the second will interest only those who want to study the proof for the statements made in the first volume. It may be that not all the findings are valid, but the material is interesting and stimulating. Interpretation of the symbolic meanings of children's paintings is given throughout the book.

Alschuler, Rose, and associates, *Two to Six: Suggestions for Parents and Teachers of Young Children*, revised edition. New York, William Morrow, 1943.

A little of everything in a little book that is correct and useful.

Fordham, Michael, *Life of Childhood.* London, Kegan Paul, 1944.
An English Jungian analyst reports about his work with young children. While the writing is often obscure, there is much food for thought in this little book.

Gates, Arthur I., *The Improvement of Reading.* New York, The Macmillan Company, 1946.

Gates, Arthur I., *Reading.* New York, Bureau of Pub. T.C.C., 1931.
Gates's extensive work on reading is given in the first of these two listings, his abbreviated work in the second one. Nursery school teachers should know this material so that they can speak convincingly to parents who are overambitious for their children and want them to learn to read at too young an age.

McKee, Paul V., *The Teaching of Reading.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1948.
All teachers should read the first two chapters of this book for an understanding of the problems involved in a young child's learning to read.

Perrine, Van Dearing, *Let the Child Draw.* Philadelphia, Frederick A. Stokes, 1936.
A little book that pleads a good case: letting the child's creative impulses be expressed naturally in drawing. It has many charming illustrations.

10

Outdoor Activities

Although children need plenty of outdoor play, they can get too much, because such play is usually quite active and strenuous. Prolonged outdoor play periods can produce undesirable fatigue. Some schools permit any or all activities to be carried on outside, particularly in California, where the weather can be mild the year round. However, where the outdoor equipment is adequate, there is no need to bring clay, paints, or crayons outside. In fact, it is better, for several reasons, not to permit outdoor play with the indoor equipment. The children need to alternate periods of strenuous outside play with periods of quieter indoor play, to keep from getting bored or overtired. There is no danger of "regimentation" when children move freely from indoor to outdoor play as their own attention span dictates interest in a given play. The school's capacity can be increased if the morning play period has simultaneous indoor and outdoor activities. Except for rain, there is no need ever to keep all the children inside, because fog, snow, wind, and cold are not harmful in small amounts if children are warmly clad. When some of the children are inside, and some outside, there is seldom congestion in the room, and the outdoor equipment seems more plentiful.

Set-up and Purpose

One purpose of outdoor play is the exercising of big muscles. Running, jumping, climbing, pedaling, swinging, and block building all call for big muscle work. Since indoor space does not permit

free play of big muscles, the indoor activities are selected for exercising the smaller muscles of eyes and hands. For work which requires good concentration and coördination such as painting, crayoning, or puzzle play, the outdoor space is an unfavorable environment. A strong sun gives a glare on white paper, a wind can be very disturbing, a protected corner is likely to be in the chilly shade, clay falls on the ground and gets dirty, and the source of supplies is too far away. We therefore consider it better not to have any indoor activities brought outside, and we never bring outdoor things inside. Indoor jungle gyms or climbing bars are not provided in any of our schools. The outdoor play space should be not too big and have no hidden corners or ells, varying ground levels, low fences, or other hazards to good supervision. Where hazards exist, teachers should keep them constantly in mind and tend to stand near them.

The yard should be divided for supervision when more than one teacher is present. *Yard teachers should never stand together* except for momentary consultation regarding some school business. Children are acutely aware of teachers' distractions or lack of interest, and become troublesome when they feel they are not being carefully watched. When all is going well, it is possible for teachers to have some sociability, but it is always highly undesirable, because too much can happen too suddenly. The quality of the nursery school yard supervision can be measured by the amount of teacher contact in the yard – the less teachers talk to each other, the better the supervision. This point cannot be emphasized too strongly. When teachers find yard duty boring, it is because they do not realize how much there is for them to do, and they do not realize how constant alertness and attention can prevent friction and fighting, whereas a lack, or apparent lack, of interest on their part promotes difficulties.

There can be no absolute rule about the teachers' sitting or standing in the yard, but there is no doubt that standing is preferable except on rare occasions. Sitting should be kept at a minimum unless the number of children is small and no troublesome ones are present. Even then, it is not preferable. Teachers never sit on the children's equipment. Standing quietly, but attentively, or moving with slow, casual gait is a better teaching posture for the yard. A teacher should never sit to tell a story or give a "nature lesson,"

unless she is absolutely sure that no child in the yard will come to any harm while she is so doing. The yard teacher must be able to move quickly to any spot, for there is real hazard in outdoor play that is not well supervised.

The yard equipment must be in good repair and placed for proper use. The yard should be "set up" each morning; that is, portable equipment such as blocks, tricycles, and any movable apparatus should be set in place. Proper placing for equipment must be decided upon by the head teacher, and then things can go regularly into place. Children drag things all over the yard and upset the organization of the space, but the teachers can bring things back from time to time without interfering with legitimate play. At least the equipment can be placed properly at the beginning of the play time, for such placing contributes to the appropriate use of it. New arrangements for equipment may need to be made from time to time.

The equipment, building, and grounds must be protected from the destructiveness of the children. They can learn not to touch the flowers and plants, and should not be allowed to mark up the surface of the building, throw mud on walls or windows, or dig holes in the ground. They must learn not to try to open the gate or to climb the fence, or open doors not intended for their use. All these prohibitions can be enforced with little difficulty if teachers will consistently point out that they are not permitted, and if they do not punish for infringements. A very troublesome child may be sent inside if it is too hard to watch him outside, but usually a constant reminding is enough to get conformity. However, all teachers must be consistent and vigilant if training is to be successful, and that is why yard teachers must be on their toes.

Use of the Principal Pieces of Equipment

Let us now consider some of the proper and improper uses of the outdoor equipment, which are simple and obvious enough that student teachers can learn them from one reading. Our rules are all made in the interests of safety first, protecting equipment, and providing maximum enjoyment of equipment by all.

Jungle gym play is safe if properly used. No child is allowed to carry things up into it. Both hands and both feet are needed for

security, and falling objects are obviously dangerous. Boards and platforms in the gym are not safe; loose boards slide and flop. Fixed platforms enable a child to have free use of both hands and to push or hit other children climbing up. It is better to have children within two years of one another's age use the gym simultaneously. Older children are too rough for the younger ones. A very disturbed and negatively aggressive or destructive child will have to be watched closely, for he can be dangerous. "No pushing" is the rule, and children must be reminded of this when necessary. There should be no blocks, boards, or toys near or under the gym, because a child can fall or jump off from low heights with safety only if the ground is clear. Soft dirt is best under the gym — cement is somewhat dangerous. A teacher should be near the jungle gym as much as possible.

A tree house is similar to the jungle gym, for it is primarily a climbing apparatus. Furniture for doll play should not be allowed in the tree house. The building blocks may not be carried up, because they can come crashing down on someone's head. The same is true for toys. A slide combined with the tree house is a good feature. The pleasure of climbing and being on a different level, up high, is the one we want children to get from a tree house.

The slide must be placed so that bicycles and blocks do not get in the way of those coming down. No sand, blocks, or toys may be run down the slide. "No pushing" is again the rule. When two or more children are using the slide, the rule is "up the steps and down the slide." Teachers can help to see that everyone gets a turn, and that reasonable speed is maintained. The child who is new or afraid of the slide can step out of line if the others are impatient, but the teacher should see to it that he gets practice later when the slide is not in demand. Children should not be allowed to walk down the slide unless there are enough teachers for one to supervise this activity exclusively. They can walk or crawl up the slide at any time when there is not a demand for traffic in the downward direction.

Swings must have leather rather than wooden seats to be safe. The seats should be removable and adjustable, and placed each day at proper heights. The teacher should try to teach the children how to swing rather than swing them, though she should "give a push" frequently upon request. Children have to learn to take turns

on the swing, but the turns should not be too short or forced. Swinging is a solitary, more than a social affair, and is very popular. Encourage a child who is waiting for a turn to play with something else in the meantime. Children not swinging must be kept well away from the path of the swing. No double standing or "pumping" while standing is permitted.

Sand box play is always popular. Because sand is expensive, children must be encouraged to keep it in the box and not carry it all over the yard. If sand were cheap, it might be moved about freely, but it then must be swept up and kept from being blown about. Sand in containers should not be carried to any other equipment. No paper or glass should be allowed in the box. Glass breaks and is dangerous; paper rots when it gets wet and makes undesirable dirt in the sand. No sticks can be allowed, because they are dangerous. Toy trucks are good to use, and tin cans make good sand toys because they can be replaced so easily. Heavy cast aluminum pans are best because they do not rust. Water should always be used in the sand if the temperature is not too cold. Sand play is both social and solitary, and both dramatic and mechanical. The nature and texture of sand makes it fun to handle for simple tactual pleasure. It lends itself to imaginary purposes, and when children have "built" something with the sand, teachers should help them protect it from destruction until it has been reasonably enjoyed. The teacher will have to restrict the number who can play with the sand at one time. There is no rule for determining how many children are too many; the teacher will have to judge for herself whether any friction that develops is due to overcrowding or to other causes. Needless to say, the first rule of sand play is "no throwing sand." The child who cannot refrain must be taken away from the sand box for a time.

Bouncing boards are heavy planks placed on two blocks at either end. The only rules for them are not too many children on at once; no blocks on the board; and, of course, no pushing. These boards develop the child's sense of balance.

Rocking boats may have as many as three children on each side. Children playing near must be kept back from the boat so that they cannot be accidentally bumped. The rocking boat may not be turned on its side for dramatic play.

Seesaws should be kept upright and in position for proper use.

The teacher must show children how to get on and off without hurting the child on the other end, and she will often need to help in this process.

Packing boxes are used primarily for dramatic play, either solitary or social. Undressing in the boxes is not permitted, but teachers must be careful not to make a child feel guilty or anxious if she finds that the attempted undressing is some kind of sex play, or if she finds that children use the packing boxes instead of the toilet to learn about the differences between boys and girls in their sex structure. Such play is not vicious or dangerous, but shows unsatisfied curiosity, or perhaps hostility to the teacher, or some need to reënact scenes of home life. If the teacher can go along with the play until she learns what is back of it, she can clear it up much better than if she tries to forbid or repress the play. All teachers cannot handle such situations easily, but one who is able to do so can be assigned to observe the play, try to understand it and interpret it to other teachers. Packing boxes are good for climbing on as well as for crawling into. Sometimes a child or small group claims use of both inside and outside for their play; at other times one can observe two completely separate groups at the same box, one inside, and one outside.

Outdoor blocks should be assigned to a space for building and then not scattered all over the yard during incidental dramatic play. Those that do somehow get scattered can be brought back to place by the teacher. Our rules for block building are: no throwing, no knocking down, and no unsafe heights. Throwing and knocking down blocks is somewhat dangerous, and is very hard on the blocks, causing them to crack. Since they are so expensive, they must be preserved. A safe height for one pile is as high as a child can reach to place a block when he stands on one other block. When large numbers of blocks are placed so close together that they can be stood upon safely, the structure can go higher. It is safe only if blocks are not likely to fall off, for falling blocks can be dangerous to any child running near-by. Blocks must be put away each day in a place allocated for their storage. Children may help the teachers do this, but the job is the teacher's.

Tricycles and other wheel toys are expensive and good ones are hard to get, so that we must teach the children to preserve them by not turning them upside down or crashing them against each other,

or against a wall or fence. Letting children use sand as imaginary oil or gas to put on the wheels is no help in keeping all three wheels in order. We have to caution the children repeatedly to prevent abusive use of tricycles, but in view of the amount of pleasure they get from wheel toys, it does seem to be legitimate to try to keep them intact even if we do restrict their use as just indicated. Children do not always believe us when we say that misuse destroys the toys, because the consequences of abuse can be too delayed for them to see cause and effect at the time we speak; however we do give reasons for whatever help they may be.

Games such as Ring Around the Rosie, Looby Loo, or Farmer in the Dell are seldom used in a good nursery school, for these are more suited to older children who can direct themselves in such games. Some of the children must strain to keep their attention on what they are doing, and such children may not be able to play happily at something else if a game is going on. When children who have learned such games do them spontaneously, they should be allowed to proceed as they like. Twos and threes definitely should not be taught games; fours and fives can be given games if there is not enough equipment out of doors. There is never any need for playing games indoors because there is always enough else to do.

Excursions off the premises are a pleasure to children, and good for them provided there are enough adults to accompany the children, and the excursions are not too long and tiring. It is better never to take the twos for more than the shortest walk, and even this can be of doubtful value. Four three-year-old children to one adult should be a maximum; five or six four-year-olds per adult, and six or seven five-year-olds per adult can be safe, but more than that is hazardous and not to be recommended. Excursions to almost any familiar place can be made enjoyable if not repeated too often, and, if things of interest are pointed out to the children, going new places is always fun. We must guard against pushing the children intellectually by making excursions, and remember that new experiences are a great strain, even though an enjoyable one.

SUPERVISION

All rules regarding proper use of outdoor equipment must be made known to the children and uniformly adhered to by all teachers.

The manner in which teachers interpret rules will depend upon how well they adhere to the principles of discipline as set forth in Chapter 12, and how skillfully they practice the techniques described in Chapter 13. The group atmosphere sets the tone of behavior for outdoor play just as it does for inside play. The tempo of outdoor play is different, for the children are noisier, more active, more aggressive, and more vigorous out of doors. More negative aggressive behavior tends to be released outside than in because relatively unrestrained use of voice and body is permitted outdoors, and this can make the children feel free to express more hostile feelings too. However, it is very wrong to build up a situation where the children feel that they may be "bad" outdoors, but must be "good" indoors. Aggressions can be worked out better in the yard because children are able to use all muscles more intensely by climbing, running and jumping, and they are able to shout and make as much noise as they like. But this should not mean that destructive hostile behavior is given free reign. The underlying rules of discipline are always the same.

Supervising outdoor play is not enjoyed by some teachers because it lacks some of the interesting detail of content that the indoor activities have, and because disagreeable weather affects the teacher. She is not required to be active enough to keep warm through exercise. However, when a teacher is warmly dressed and interested in the conversations of the children at play, she is never bored, but enjoys her outdoor work as much as the indoor. While less technical knowledge is needed to supervise outdoor play, compared to indoor, the technical skills required are of high professional level. Understanding of the children comes only from observing all their play, both indoor and out.

Selected Reading

See Bibliography of Chapter 12.

11

Literature and Music

THE SIMPLEST NARRATION of a familiar event in nursery school is a story, and thus comes to be called "literature," though the actual literary value may not be above the cookbook level. The word literature as we use it here refers then to stories which are read or told to the children, and to the picture books we give to them to look at by themselves. It also includes the scrapbooks made for the children by the teachers, but as the making of scrapbooks is discussed under Materials, we shall deal here only with the stories that teachers read and tell. Such stories may have more or less literary value, but they must be suitable for the age level, both intellectually and psychologically. Insofar as possible we try to give the children stories in which language is used with regard for literary standards, but the psychological values are more important than the literary.

FOUR CRITERIA FOR CHOOSING STORIES

There are certain criteria for judging children's stories and picture books which can help teachers to select the best books for children and also to become proficient in telling suitable stories to the various age levels. These criteria have to do with the story's auditory aspect, its intellectual content, and its emotional quality. If there are pictures to go with the story, the visual effects must also be right.

AUDITORY APPEAL

The auditory development of children does not vary much with the different age levels of the nursery school. The hearing of a

two-year-old is as acute as that of a five-year-old, but the capac. to interpret word sounds is very different. Because it is so difficult to separate the sound of words from their meaning, we can be misled into thinking that children like the content, when in reality it is just the appealing sound. The point to be made is the simple one that the actual sound of words being spoken is equally appealing at all ages, though the kinds of words used must vary with the different ages. Let us first discuss words as sounds.

The onomatopoetic word is greatly liked and widely used, as we all know. Words that sound like their meaning or emotional connotation are appropriate to all ages. Words that repeat themselves with variations are readily enjoyed. Thus "big, bigger, biggest" is better language (for sound) than "good, better, best." Words that can be repeated, as "whoo" and "meow" in the following:

> And the wind went "whoo, whoo"
> And the kitty said "meow, meow"

are fun for the children because of their sound rather than their meaning.

The rhythm of words in a series, whether in prose or poetry, has pure sound appeal that even the youngest children appreciate. While they obviously enjoy hearing rhythmic word sequences, particularly when made by themselves, they are seldom satisfied with stories which rely too much on the sound effects and lack content or other interest. When Arabella and Araminta pick poppies, *ad infinitum*, the story has primarily an obvious rhythmic sound appeal; but it also has visual imagery, a sense of number, the repetition of the familiar, and other qualities to enhance its appeal. Thus poetry for children of all ages needs to have more than just rhythmic appeal.

To enjoy the sound of words the child does not need to know their meanings. The child who has never seen a cow will like "moo-moo" as a word and as an auditory image. However, where the imagery is linked with experience, it has enhanced value. Most children's books make more use of country sounds than of city noises. For a city nursery school, then, it is good to find some stories that dramatize familiar noises so that the children may enjoy them for their sense as well as their sound.

Nonsense rhymes, which have pure sound appeal, do not usually

interest children under five or six years of age. They may enjoy trying to repeat "Peter Piper," but this is because it is a feat of speech-muscle coördination as well as one of sound. Individual instances of fondness for particular word sounds that the adult does not understand are usually due to some associative factor.

Intellectual content. When the auditory aspects of a story are clear, the intellectual content comes through better. By intellectual content we refer to the meaning of the story in relation to the child's developing mental capacity, as distinguished from his interests that are physical or emotional. Both factual and imaginative content can be intellectual, and the two may be interwoven or widely separated in a given story. At the preschool age, the ability to distinguish fact from fantasy is one of the signs of developing intelligence. Of course, stories and pictures must have intellectual content that is carefully selected for the various age levels, for the development of the child's mind between two and six is tremendous. Thus we must be able to select stories that each age can understand with the brain as well as hear with the ears and see with the eyes. A year-old child may be able to see a picture of a cow and say "moo-moo" when he looks at it, without being ready to understand that a cow is an animal that gives milk. This understanding will come in his later intellectual development. Thus "Peter Rabbit" may be enjoyed for sound and color by some twos, but they will not understand it; whereas four-year-olds will. The same can be said of most of the nursery rhymes whose content was made for children who knew the meaning of "tuffet" and "curds and whey." Obsolete words and their reference to obsolete experiences have made these nursery rhymes less enjoyable and valuable to children than good modern rhymes and jingles because the content of the traditional rhymes is not in terms of modern experience.

Objects and animals in children's stories should behave realistically, as the child sees them and as everyone talks about them. Boats should move on the water and not do mountain climbing. Milk is drunk by children and kittens and is not used to water flowers. On the whole, it is easier to give pure intellectual content by informal conversation about objects than it is to make an interesting story with a plot element. While stories of fantasy usually give some intellectual content, also, it is often in such unclear fashion that any real intellectual value is subordinated.

Making intellectual content of a nature which is verifiable by experience requires careful consideration of age-level development. Capacity to appreciate such content develops rapidly with age from birth to six. Two-year-olds identify objects in pictures, such as animals, boats, or airplanes, but it is better to give objects that they know in actual experience, such as home objects. They can follow through mentally a simple action, but each page of a storybook should have not more than a dozen familiar words per picture to describe this action. The older the child, the longer and more complicated the narrative can be, but for children under five, each page of the book should preferably have one picture and not more than thirty words of interesting narrative. The fewer words the better. The child's mind wanders when the story is too long, or when complicated fantasy ideas are introduced to relieve the strain and boredom. When factual stories about farm life are given to city children who cannot experience them, the children probably take them in, not as reality, but as fantasies that can be safely shared with adults. It is, therefore, important for stories to have reality content that can be verified with reality experiences if they are to develop the child's intelligence.

Emotional suitability. Our next criterion for judging the suitability of a book or story is whether or not it is appropriate for the child's emotional development. Here the gradations from two to six are not so great as they are for intellectual content. This is perhaps due to the fact that certain emotional situations have the same interest for almost any age level when dramatically presented in language that suits the age level. A lost kitten will get anyone's attention as far as emotions are concerned. In selecting books for each of the various age levels in the nursery school, we rule out few stories because their emotional themes are too babyish or too old, but many only because the ideas and words used are too simple or too advanced. This point is demonstrated in the sample story given later in this chapter.

The emotional suitability of a story depends upon how much the child can identify himself with the feelings of someone in the story because he has had similar feelings. All children know what it is to be cold, hungry, sleepy, hurt, scared and to feel lost or to get punished. However, a story about a trip on a bus will be more meaningful and therefore more satisfying to a four-year-old than a two-

year-old because he is more likely to have had the experience and to recall it adequately. Again, stories that say "don't touch" are more satisfying for twos since they are in the throes of this kind of frustration.

The emotional outcome of the story also determines its suitability. It should turn out in such a fashion that the child can continue his identification, enjoy himself and feel comfortable. If the ending forces him to break off his identification, it is not satisfying or suitable.

Visual appeal. Our last criterion applies to stories read from books. They should not only be attractively illustrated but also meet certain requirements for age-level visual capacities. Since adult vision is different from children's, we cannot tell just what they see or to what extent their enjoyment of pictures is due largely to visual impressions, for abstract line, mass, and color are at all ages emotionally stimulating both singly and in combination; nor do we know just how much of the perspective the child perceives.

The first requirement of an illustration in a nursery school book is that it be clearly visible, preferably at a distance of four to five feet so that it can be used for group storytelling. Juxtaposition of colors, shading, and outlines must be such as to help clarify the visual image. Only books which do this should be used for group stories. Books which need closer vision should be given only for individual table use. A picture which spreads over two pages must not be split down the middle by poor binding. Printing superimposed on the pictures can be confusing, while distorted and poor photographs can be more unreal looking than line drawings. Clarity of the visual image is more important than artistic worth to a child in the nursery school. Since children naturally achieve harmony and balance in their own work, we might assume that they appreciate it in adults' work, too, but we must not forget that visual clarity is the first requirement of an illustration. The younger the child, the less developed is the visual capacity, so that twos need simpler outlines than do fives.

The primary visual image must be clear and must be the one developed by the narrative, with other images so subordinated that they do not detract. If the story says, "Peter bounced his ball," and the illustration shows Peter's dog for the first time, the teacher will have to introduce the dog into the story even if the author

didn't. Thus pictures must not create distractions to the story. While some two-year-olds seem to have sufficient visual capacity to detect minute detail, in general it is true that the younger the child, the more the detail is lost on him. This may be due to intellectual rather than to visual immaturity, but, in any case, details are less desirable for the youngest children. Furthermore, a rabbit should look like a rabbit and not like a cloud hanging in the sky. Realistic use of color helps to clarify images. Milk in bottles is better when colored white than red or blue, for while the adult eye may readily translate the red image into white milk, the average child will want to know why the milk is red. Such a question the teacher will find hard to answer while reading a story.

Function of Children's Literature

Having discussed the criteria by which we judge the appropriateness of stories and books for nursery school use, we shall now consider their function. Literature can be useful for the following: entertaining, developing language, giving information, stimulating imagination, releasing emotional tension, and building character.

The entertainment which a story provides can be judged by the attention children voluntarily give to it and by the requests they make to have it repeated. However, more than the children's approval is needed to recommend a book because they may, for a number of reasons, like stories that we do not consider suitable. They may like a poor story because they have not had enough opportunity to hear good ones, or because of an association which has nothing to do with the story content. Children like a poor story sometimes because of a single high spot of interest and satisfaction. We cannot, therefore, let children be the sole judge of their literary diet any more than we should let them select their own vitamin and mineral diet. However, any book or story that is not liked by the children should be discarded at once, no matter how good the teacher thinks it is, while every book they do like should also be approved by an adult. Many good books are available, and teachers can learn how to select them.

A story will be entertaining when it is good in itself, and when it is told in the right setting. Various factors comprise the setting: making the child physically comfortable while he listens; getting

him to listen voluntarily; preventing disturbing influences such as physical and verbal interruptions by children or adults; telling the story with teacher interest; and avoiding stories that bore because they are too familiar. The mechanics and techniques of telling a story to a group are given later in this chapter.

The value of stories as a means of *developing language* depends upon what words are used, how the author uses them, how the teacher says them, and how the children understand them. Both new and familiar words should be used, and colloquialisms are always welcome. Teachers may change words in books so that they are more suitable for a given locale. For instance, a "subway" had better be an "underground train" for children outside New York or Boston. An English "tram" has to be a "bus" for American children. The changing of such words should be written in the book because children like to hear stories repeated verbatim.

How words are used by authors has much to do with their value for language development. The vocabulary must be graded somewhat to age level, though basic emotional words are always good. A story about farm animals for twos might say on each page just these words: "Then the farmer fed some milk to the ——," inserting the name of the animal that would be appropriate. Older children need more variety in the words used, even with the same restricted content.

When writers use words that flow and read easily and thus give the book literary quality, the story is enhanced for language value. Children often memorize whole phrases from stories heard at this age, which automatically lay foundations for taste in literature. Compare the following verses:

Jack Sprat could eat no fat,
His wife could eat no lean,
And so together betwixt them both,
They licked the platter clean.

Sweet peas hang by the window,
Geraniums stand by the door,
And if I pick just one of them
I'm told not to pick any more.

Apart from the preferable content of the second, its literary value

is at least as good if not better than that of Jack Sprat. Common words are used poetically in one verse and not in the other. It is difficult to find beautifully written stories that meet the other requirements, but good use of language should be a consideration in judging books. Reading a story aloud is a good test. Sometimes teachers and children can improve on the words used in a story and such changes can be written in the book, but this should not be done with standard works that are to become a part of literary culture, and a nursery rhyme, for example, should never be changed.

The teacher's pronunciation of words is important for developing language. She does not say "bootiful" or "butiful" or "bee-u-ti-ful," but she says "beautiful." Her diction should be clear but not artificial. It is a good practice for the teacher to explain in her own words the meaning of certain words and to be sure that the children hear them correctly. I recall how I once told a child that I was a "substitute" teacher, whereupon she told another child that I was a Sunday school teacher. When I had explained that a substitute teacher came only "some days," she repeated that I only taught "Sundays." Such misunderstandings happen very easily with our language. If a sentence says "the whistle blew," be sure the child doesn't think of a blue whistle. This can be done by interpolating, "Yes, it made a loud noise."

Interpolation by the teacher is a way of clearing up meanings of words and increasing vocabulary, but it must be done so that it does not spoil the story. Children's participation in interpolation and making comments throughout the story helps them make the words their own. This verbalizing is important, for a word which the child can say is better known than one that he only understands from hearing it. However, extensive interpolation by children, although excellent in the individual situation, is not good in the group. This is also true of letting children tell their own stories.

Stories that have words to be repeated help language development. The most inhibited and self-conscious child will sometimes speak out in stories of this kind because he feels secure in the response to be made. Stories which use serial repetitions can be adapted to the group by using the names of the actual children listening. "The kitty drank his milk, and the puppy drank his milk, and Peter drank his milk" can be continued until every child in a story group is mentioned. Before long there will be a chorus

of "drank his milk." Teachers can help to develop language by referring to simple stories during the play period when this enhances rather than detracts from the child's play.

Stories are especially good for a child learning to speak English in nursery school. The set form of written words is a great aid to building vocabulary, and a story in a new language is more acceptable to him than is everyday speech. He does not have to translate so much, and he has pictures to help him to understand.

Giving information. All that has been said about words is basic in the matter of imparting factual information, though the factual content itself is of more importance. As said before, age-level development of intelligence plays a big rôle. Twos are not so interested in knowing that buses carry people to work as are the fours, but they like to hear about things around the house about which they have knowledge by way of their senses. Thus, a clock for them must just be the face that "goes tick-tock," whereas fours are interested in types of clocks. In general, the twos are at the stage of identifying objects by name and partial function; more function is needed to interest older children. For twos, the clock simply goes "tick-tock" and mustn't be touched; for the threes, it tells day and night, it gets the family up, and tells when lunch is ready in school; for the fours, it helps airplanes to fly; for the fives, it has all its various functions, except for their own use in telling time. That comes at six.

When the intellectual content of stories is properly graded to age levels, learning is easy and simple. Conceivably we could have picture books which are suitably written for each of the sciences so that their study would begin in the nursery school without pushing the children intellectually. But we can never really know how much a child understands of intellectual content. When his emotional attitude is favorable and attentive, we may think he understands, but he may be miles away mentally. Repeating back to us may prove nothing but language facility. A three-year-old once asked me why I ate only egg whites for lunch. I said, "I'm on a diet." "Why are you going to die?" he asked calmly. I said, "I'm not, I am just eating certain foods for awhile." He said, "Oh, I can say diet, you're on a diet." This shows how hard it is to rely on words for communication, and why good illustrations are so important in children's books.

The capacity for logical thinking is not yet much developed in the preschool age. Children are learning then by emotional and sensory experience and by use of vivid imagination. Adults are misled by their apparent knowledge of cause and effect when, in reality, only good memory and associative processes are working. That is why it is better to give a child the correct and specific word for a new thing or experience, even if he doesn't understand it or wants an emotional word, for with the right label, he will later come to understand more reliably. It is better to tell him that he is getting cod-liver oil than to call it a tonic, or vitamins, or medicine. The various values of the oil can be explained if necessary, but the specific and nonemotional word oil should be generally used. Thus if we want to teach basic biology through animals, the story will not have the animals talk. However, if we want to use animals for teaching morals and building character, the animals in the story will talk. The two need not be completely separated, and the talking animals should be as biologically sound as possible. Rabbits shouldn't fly, and snakes shouldn't run trains. The factual data we wish to impart is best when it can receive the widest verbal confirmation from others, and when the child has access to verifying it himself by looking, touching, hearing, tasting, and experiencing; then we have proper intellectual content.

As for *stimulating imagination*, stories are both helpful and hazardous. They must pull the child from his inner subjective fantasy life to experiences that he can share with others. They should make the real world around him a world of wonder and beauty — a kind of fairyland for observation. In both these ways we increase communication between the adult and child and improve their relationship. The pristine enjoyment of a child's discovery of a snowflake can be fully shared by the adult who, in such matters, does not have to lose his childlike nature. The potentiality of all things and all creatures makes a world where the sphere of imagination is never ending for a person of any age. When a child, during a windstorm, asks, "Why is the rain in such a hurry?" every other child and adult gets a momentary insight into a natural phenomenon that gives it new beauty and meaning. This is the kind of imagination that we try to stimulate, preserve, and develop in children. It does not distort or pervert reality but enriches it, and we do not interfere with such imagery. But if a child says, "The rain is coming in and wash

you down the toilet," we know that he needs both intellectual and emotional reorientation. He needs to be told that the rain will not do this, and from there on you try to find out why he wants you to come to such a dire end. Stimulating the kind of fantasy that enriches rather than distorts reality is one of the aims of giving fantasy content in children's literature.

Helping the child to overcome his preoccupation with subjective fantasies can be done by giving the right amount and kind of fantasy in literature, and this is probably the main reason why fantasy is universally used in children's stories. For if we ruthlessly inhibit the fantasy life of the child or fail to share it to a sufficient degree, we cannot make intimate contact with him. The nursery school teacher tries to understand the fantasy life of a child and tries to enter his imaginative world with the ultimate purpose of weaning his mind from fantasy and wishful thinking to reality and purposeful thinking. To this end, the kind of fantasy which is given in stories must be carefully selected. We have found in the nursery school that the younger the child, the more need to select the fantasy content of stories with great care.

Whereas the preschool age probably thrives better when fantasy content is restricted and emphasis is given to reality content, the older child can take more fantasy. Stories in which animals talk are enjoyed by all ages and such fantasy material is good. But fairies, witches, and other imaginary persons should be given only to children beyond the preschool years who are able to distinguish between real and imaginary people. The whole of fairy story literature has no place in nursery school because stories which do not help the nursery school child to distinguish between his subjective fantasy ideas and imagery and his reality impressions are not desirable. The problem is how to give the kind of fantasy that will cause emotional release and build character, and help the child to be less egocentric and more interested in social behavior. This matter is always a delicate one, and for children with emotional disturbances it is a critical one.

Releasing emotional tension. The young child is almost completely self-centered and relates everything to himself as the heart of the universe. He gets himself at once into a story by identifying with someone in it. This is how the story gives him emotional release. It is as easy for him to be a rabbit as a child — in fact, some-

times easier. Therefore, any story where animals talk or have emotions is a story about him. He may affirm or deny his identification by saying, "That's me," or "I'm not like that rabbit," depending upon how he feels. We must make the story one which will let him have his feelings without too many conflicts, particularly the kind about which he is unable to do anything. While factual stories avoid conflicts better than fantasy tales, they may not be so satisfying emotionally. The child wants excitement, thrills, gore of a kind, and hidden meanings. His own fantasy creates stories which have these qualities galore, and we have to compete and improve upon them. Therefore, the stories we tell must not be dull, but neither should they be too lurid. For young children, stories should always come out right – that is, the good should always win out over the bad because children need this encouragement from the adults' stories. In everyday life all children are abundantly supplied with the bad, both from within and without. We should make all our school stories come out with the good on top. There must be full recognition of the bad and the dangerous, but it must not win out in the end. Thus, "Little Red Riding Hood" is not a good story because the wolf eats the grandmother, even if Red Riding Hood herself escapes. In days when every home had superfluous grandmothers, such a story may have been emotionally useful, but it does not fit our present needs.

The good should always win out; the bad should be given in proper doses. We must be careful about having animals eat other animals. We cannot erase fears thus created by saying that it is all just a story or make-believe, because that would come too late and because it would not be true anyhow. Only when they are older do children acquire a kind of detachment that enables them to read a story for a thrill without getting upset. Look at the excited faces of children as they listen and see how deeply they feel these first stories. They themselves become the characters of the story when it has emotional intensity.

Having animals talk is good for children because they feel at home in this kind of fantasy. Having inanimate objects talk is not so good because while animals seem to respond somewhat to spoken words, chairs and tables never do. Getting children to see just this is part of their reality education. We confuse them when we animate things. This does not mean that we object to their own

animating, but it does mean that we do not confirm it, even in stories.

It will be argued that children like horror stories that are not considered good for them – that they "eat them up." The answer is that they will eat ant powder, too, because of its pretty color, but we know enough not to let them get near it. One reason that children like gruesome stories is that they confirm some of their fantasies. This is exactly what we wish to deny them so that their behavior will be outgoing and friendly rather than destructively aggressive or fearful. The fact that through the ages children have been given poor stories is only proof that adults did not know better. Presumably we do now, or else our whole science of psychology must be ignored. While our knowledge of children's fantasy life is not extensive, it does give us a basis for selecting better books for children. What we give to them in stories is mental food, and we must be selective about it.

Building character. Living out emotional situations by the process of identification makes literature a means for building character and accepting moral codes. A story is an account of an event or of a conflict between the good and the bad. The rewards for good behavior and the punishments or disappointments for the bad make the moral. Therefore, we must select stories in terms of characters to love or to hate, to be like or not to be like. The rewards must be suitable; the punishments not too severe. In terms of our discussion in the chapter on discipline, the story must help to build the right kind of superego in the child. If the story moralizes too much, or is too frightening, or is over his head, the child does not identify adequately and brushes off the affair as not of his concern. This identification process is the whole point to the use of literature for character building and applies to all ages, not just to preschool children. Identification is largely an unconscious process; therefore, in stories, and also in movies and radio programs, we should not subject children to situations where they are forced by nature of the material to identify with characters which they should not emulate, because they cannot help acting like them afterwards.

Storytelling Techniques

Let us now discuss the mechanics and techniques of storytelling or reading. When the children join the storytelling group, the

teacher should see that everyone is sitting comfortably and that the group forms a cluster on the floor with no child sitting so close to her that he looks over her shoulder for this makes the others jealous. They must sit so that everyone can see the pictures when she holds the book up. If possible, the entire group should be able to see a picture with one showing; two showings are justified only when a teacher has to take two story groups at a time. It is too much strain on the children's patience to pass a picture all the way around a circle slowly and carefully. The best storytelling is that improvised by the teachers; but since few are able to do this, we have to fall back on books. The teacher should be very familiar with the story and be able to read it by looking out of the side of her eye while she is holding the book up beside her cheek — then the children can see the picture while she is reading the text that goes with it. It is maddening for children to have the teacher hold the book in her lap unless they can look over her shoulder, and obviously all of twelve or thirteen children cannot look over her shoulder.

We do not let children get up and go to other activities during the pre-lunch story or music hour. The materials have all been put away; so children must stay with the group. If the teacher is a half-way good storyteller, there is no resistance. At other times story periods are optional.

When a teacher has begun a book with too long a story, she should improvise conversations about the pictures and turn the pages rapidly enough to keep the children from getting bored. This sometimes annoys children who are familiar with the story, but it is better than having it too long for the others. Every child's attention must be held during the story time. Usually this can be achieved if a little dramatics is put into it. This need not be so artificial that the children laugh at the teacher instead of being interested in the story. A child who is not interested should be called by name with some remark that will get his attention, such as "Tony, can you see the big elephant?" Don't threaten to send anyone away — this will not secure attention. Also, the group will be much more disrupted if you have to get up and take a child away than if you keep recapturing his attention. The most disturbing child should sit close to the teacher where she can put her hand on him to get his attention. Sometimes she will have a child stand

up beside her and keep her arm around him to hold him in the group – this should be done with affection, not as punishment. Only when someone is completely out of control, may he be sent away and only if another teacher in the room can take the responsibility for him. Exclusion from the story group should be a very rare occurrence and should last only a short time.

The speed with which the teacher reads will make or kill a story. Familiar stories may be hurried; so can narrative connecting passages that lack suspense, but the meaning must be carefully brought out. For example, take, "So Johnny went into the next room, and there he saw the kitty." Depending on the story, the suspense is either in the fact that Johnny went into the room and *there* he saw the kitty or it is that in the room he saw the *kitty*. It is not easy to read a story well unless the teacher has previously digested it and knows what to bring out in language as well as in content.

The teacher's own enjoyment of the story, and her ability to look up from the book to the children's faces at certain passages, will fix their minds on them. We cannot expect our teachers to know stories by heart because too great a variety is needed in the nursery school, although this technique is excellent where the audience changes frequently and where stories are of very high literary merit.

To supplement stories read from books, the teacher should have a few of her own devising which she can adjust to the needs of her listeners, shortening or lengthening them according to time requirements, or adding some details and omitting others to satisfy various age levels. The teacher's own stories are valuable parts of the story-telling equipment not only because of their flexibility but because of their spontaneity and naturalness and their closeness to the children's experience. But where, the young teacher will undoubtedly ask, can I find ideas for original stories?

Sources of Story Ideas

Story ideas can come from commonplace sources. The everyday experiences of the child's life make the best subject matter. Any simple recounting of familiar events which have emotional significance will hold attention. Children like to hear dramatized events similar to the ones in which they participate; they also like to hear about things which they are forbidden to do. Naughty and danger-

ous acts, such as running away or throwing food, make heroes and heroines human to them. While experienced teachers can learn to make up suitable stories, for the most part we must rely upon books for nursery school use. A list of such books, graded by age levels, is given at the end of this chapter, as well as in the several bibliographies also listed there. Each year more books for the preschool age are published, and any large public library will be able to provide a list of these books for schools to select from. For the most part these books deal with new and current subject matter; only an occasional one revives Mother Goose or some other traditional material.

The most popular stories are ones which have familiar repetition as well as appealing emotional content. Repetition of ideas in words or phrases is what makes a pattern of a story. Listing objects or events in a series or repeating ideas three times are the most popular forms. "The Noisy Books," are of the first type; "The Three Bears" and "How Spot Found a Home" are of the second type. Both types give the child assurance of the outcome after the second repeat. He expects the third and is ready for it. In the three-pattern, the first two situations must be different from the third. For example, in "The Three Bears" the baby bear's porridge, chair, and bed all have a different fate. A fourth repeat is too much except in a longer series where the repeat items are comparable. In the series type of repeat, the situations must be the same and the verbal response from the children in the same pattern even if different words are used, as in the "Noisy Books."

A Sample Story

We can now turn to a sample story as told for a number of different age levels. The plot of this story is as follows: A young calf ran out of the barnyard down the road, was hit by an automobile and had its leg broken. A passing truck took it to the pound where the farmer reclaimed it and brought it back home. This plot will appeal to all children between the ages of two and five if properly told. They can all visualize the story and understand all the words except "pound," which has to be explained. It is a story I have told hundreds of times, and which has never to my knowledge been written or illustrated, but, obviously, could easily be well

illustrated in pictures all children would understand. It has factual content which requires little explanation to the twos; it has a fantasy element when the animals speak; it never fails to interest every child because he at once identifies with the calf; and it has the moral that children should not run away out the gate into the unsafe road or street. It has no horror, no abnormal or distorted behavior, and no elements of confusion about the way people and things behave. The language value of the story is its least merit. It is not literature at its best, but it does have words which the children readily repeat. It gives information of a factual nature; it stimulates imagination at three points as to possible outcomes; and it always seems to be satisfying emotionally. It was contrived for the main purpose of its moral — not to run away into traffic hazards, and the response to the moral is usually positive. As you will see, this simple story meets all our basic requirements when it is properly told for each age level. In repeating the telling of a story of this kind, one does not try to use exactly the same language each time. This makes it possible to vary and add detail at each telling in a way that holds the interest after the plot is familiar. The children will often supplement details from a former telling. Every teacher needs to have two or three such stories in mind that she can ad lib when books are not readily available.

The story for twos goes something like this in the teacher's own words, "Today I am going to tell you a story about a baby calf and a mama cow that lived in a barn. Cows don't live in houses. They live in barns, don't they? And this baby calf and the mama cow lived in a barn with a yard and a gate that opened on the road. A road is a street, isn't it? The farmer man always kept this gate closed so that the baby calf couldn't run out on the road. But one day he left it open, and while he was milking the cow, what did that baby calf do?" Up to this point there may or may not have been any comments from listeners, but now someone will surely say, "He ran out," or "He didn't do nothing," or "Tell me," and the answer will be, "He ran out of the barn and down the road. Pretty soon a big automobile came along, and it didn't see the baby calf and bumped right into him. And the poor little calf fell down, and he began to cry, 'Moo-Moo.' And he cried very hard because his leg got broken. 'Moo-Moo.'" The children can participate in the teacher's wailing "Moo-Moo."

"And as he lay there crying, a big truck came along and stopped, and a man got out and picked up the baby calf. Then he put him in the truck and said, 'You poor little hurt baby calf.' And he drove away in the big truck and took the calf to the pound because the pound is where people take lost animals, and the doctor fixed the broken leg, but the baby calf wanted his mother and he kept crying and crying, 'Moo-Moo.' Pretty soon the telephone rang and it was the farmer man calling up and he said, 'Have you got a baby calf in the pound?' And the doctor said, 'Yes, we have.' 'Good,' said the farmer, 'I'll come and get him.' And he went down to the pound in his car and brought home the baby calf. And his mama cow was so glad to see him that she licked him with her tongue and said 'Moo-Moo' and the baby calf was so glad to be home again that he said, 'Moo-Moo,' and then the mama cow said, 'Didn't I tell you never to run out that door?' And the baby calf said, 'Yes, and I won't ever do it again. Moo-Moo.' "

For the twos the story must be as short as possible, and it must not have any distracting detail. Note that *barn*, *road*, and *pound* are the only words which might be unfamiliar, and they are readily explained. Saying *farmer man* will pass without an explanation of farming.

For the threes, detail and suspense are added, and the story goes as follows:

"I know a story about a baby calf to tell you. There was a farmer man who had a big brown mama cow and a little brown baby calf. And they stayed out in the barnyard that had a high fence all around and a big gate. The farmer always kept this gate closed, so the baby calf wouldn't run out and get lost down the road. And every day the mama cow would say to her baby, 'Don't you ever run out that gate if the farmer man leaves it open. No, don't you ever go out because you might get lost on the road and get run over by an automobile.' But one day the farmer did forget and left the gate open, and the mama cow was chewing some hay and not watching the baby calf, and what do you think he did?" Someone will always say, "He ran out," and the story continues, "That's exactly what he did, and he ran across the yard and down the road until he got far away from home, and pretty soon a big green automobile came speeding by so fast it couldn't see the baby calf in time to stop, and it bumped right into him and rolled him

over into a ditch. And the car kept right on going and it didn't stop. Poor baby calf began to cry, 'Moo-Moo, my leg hurts, Moo-Moo,' and he cried and cried because he felt so lonesome for his mother and his leg hurt him so. Pretty soon a big truck came by and the man driving the truck heard this 'Moo-Moo' and he stopped. He got down out of the truck and went down in the ditch and saw that the little calf had broken his leg. 'You poor little fellow,' he said, and he picked him up and carried him and laid him very gently in his truck. 'I guess I'll have to take you to the pound,' he said, because that is where animals get taken when they get lost. So he drove to the pound and left the little calf with the pound man, who got the doctor to fix up the broken leg. And the poor little calf kept calling 'Moo-Moo' for his mama. But his mama couldn't hear him for she was in the barnyard. And when she finished eating her hay, she looked for her baby, and she saw the open gate. She got worried and began to cry loudly, 'Moo-Moo.' She made such a noise that the farmer came running and he saw the open gate, and he couldn't find the baby calf. And he got worried and ran around the yard and down the road looking everywhere for his calf. But no calf. He couldn't see him anywhere.

" 'I know,' he said, 'maybe he is at the pound. Maybe someone found my calf and took him there.' He went in the house and called up the pound on the telephone and said, 'Have you got a lost baby calf down there?'

" 'Yes, we have a brown one,' said the man.

"So the farmer jumped in his car and drove fast to the pound because mama cow kept making such a loud noise, 'Moo-Moo.' And he came into the pound, and there was his little calf still crying, 'Moo-Moo.' He picked him up and put him in the back of his car and drove home. Then he took him out of the car and put the little calf right next to his mother. And was she glad to see him! And was he glad to see her! The old mama cow said, 'Moo-Moo' and the baby calf said, 'Moo-Moo,' and because he had a broken leg, the mama cow didn't scold, but she said, 'Didn't I tell you never to run out that gate?' And the baby calf said, 'Yes, you did. I won't forget ever again.' And they both said, 'Moo-Moo' and went to sleep."

The threes will comment considerably throughout this story because they become so identified. Several will volunteer that they

never run away, that automobiles are dangerous, that a broken leg is bad, and so on. They enjoy the repetition of the moo-moo with appropriate varied expressions. One or two will try to tell about their personal incidents of running away, or about someone getting hit by a car. These interruptions must be incorporated but cut short so that the story can proceed. Usually there is considerable comment at the end. The amount and pertinence of the commenting reveals the amount of identification that has gone on.

The moral in this story is better achieved by making the calf run away than by having a child do so. It also sets more definite limits to the conversation possible, and evades the issue of the punishment of the offender. It is just remote enough to be comfortable and yet very appropriate for teaching the lesson of traffic danger to the child who might run away. The homesick calf and pining mother present a strong emotional experience that is not too sentimental.

For the four-year-olds, more content in the way of detail can be added, and the story goes thus:

"The story I'm going to tell you is about a baby calf and a mother cow that lived on a farm. It was a big farm with cows, chickens, horses, and pigs, and rabbits. And the farmer and his wife had to take care of all the animals. They had a chicken yard for the chickens, a pig sty for the pigs, a rabbit hutch for the rabbits, and a barnyard for the cows and horses. And there was a high fence around the barnyard so that none of them could run away. There was a gate in the fence with a big hook to keep it closed, and every time the farmer and his wife went through the gate, they closed and locked it so that the animals wouldn't run out. But one day the farmer forgot to lock the gate as he went into the barn to milk the cows. And, quick as a wink, the baby calf who was playing by the gate ran right out into the driveway and down the road. He was a cute little brown calf with white ears, and he could run quite fast without making any noise. It was the first time he had ever been out the gate, and he thought it was fun, so he kept right on going down the road. He stopped awhile and ate some clover, smelled the flowers, and looked up at the bright sun. All of a sudden he heard a big noise and felt a terrible bump that knocked him right over. He fell down and rolled over into a muddy ditch. What do you suppose happened to him?" After a variety of guesses have been given, the story continues. "He got

hit by an automobile. Yes, he got hit because he was standing right in the road when the car came around the corner and didn't see him. Poor little brown calf. He really got hurt, and there he was lying in a dirty ditch, and he felt miserable. He began to cry, 'Moo-Moo, Moo-Moo,' and he just couldn't do anything but cry. His leg hurt him so that he couldn't stand up or climb out of the ditch. He just cried, 'Moo-Moo' so long and so hard that what do you think happened?"

After more wild guesses, the story continues, "Why, a man who was walking down the road heard him and came right over to him and said, 'Why, you poor little thing. What's the matter with you?' And the baby calf just kept on saying, 'Moo-Moo,' because he couldn't talk. 'Oh, I see what's the trouble. Your leg is hurt,' the man said. 'I'll bet you got hit by an automobile. But what is a little fellow like you doing out on the road like this? Well, you can't stay here. I guess I will have to take you to the pound.' So the man stood out in the road and waved to a car that came by, and the driver stopped. 'What do you want?' the driver asked. 'I want to get this calf out of the ditch and take him into town to the pound. You can see he's lost and his leg is hurt – broken, maybe.' So the driver helped lift the calf into the car and they drove off to the pound." At this point the story can be shortened by omitting the conversation, or lengthened by having the driver of the first car refuse help. The account of what happens at the pound may be similarly shortened or prolonged. There the events can be as brief as the following: "And they took him into the pound where the doctor fixed his broken leg and let him lie down and go to sleep." Or more detail as to how the leg was fixed can be given.

After this the story can be ended if need be by saying, "And the next day the farmer came and got the baby calf and took it back to its mother in the barnyard, and she was so glad to see her baby that she said 'Moo-Moo' all morning."

The story may also be stretched out as follows: "While the baby calf was sleeping, the farmer was working, and he didn't even notice that the gate was open and his calf was gone. But pretty soon he heard a terribly loud 'Moo-Moo' over and over again. It was the mama cow who couldn't find her baby. The farmer came running, and he saw the open gate, and he shut it right away. He looked all over the barnyard and didn't see his calf, and then he

knew why his cow was making such a noise. So the farmer began to run all around the farm to hunt for his baby calf. He called to his wife, and she came to help him look, but they couldn't find him anywhere.

" 'He must be lost,' said the farmer. 'Yes, he must be,' said his wife. 'I know, I'll call up the pound. Maybe someone found him and took him there.' So she went into the house and called up the pound. 'Have you got a baby calf down there?' she asked, 'A brown one with white ears?' 'Why, yes, we have,' said the pound keeper. So the farmer's wife ran out and told the farmer, and they both got in their truck and went to the pound, and there was their baby calf. So they put him on some soft hay in the back of the truck and hurried back home. The mama cow was still going 'Moo-Moo' in a loud voice, and when she saw her baby calf she was so glad, and she said, 'Moo-Moo,' for she was very happy. And the baby calf said 'Moo-Moo,' and snuggled right up to his mother. What do you suppose she said to her baby?" After all the comments, the teacher can say, "She probably said that he had better never try to run out that gate again, and he probably promised that he certainly never would again."

For the five-year-olds, the story is best with more detail in certain places and less in others in order to make the story the right length and to give variety to the repeated tellings. At each telling, new details can be added at a different point in the story. The children can participate more by naming the various animals on the farm. At the time when the calf runs out of the gate, some mention should be made that he knew better, but that he ran away just the same. The farmer's chores can be amplified. The kinds of cars that passed on the road can be named. The word veterinarian may be introduced in connection with the pound. Other animals in the pound can be mentioned, and the setting of the broken leg in splints can be described. The variety of "Moo-Moos" should be kept in the story but not stressed so much. At the end, the cow and calf need not speak, but the story can end with "I guess the mama cow thought she must watch that gate if the farmer ever left it open again, and I guess the baby calf thought he would never run out that gate again, even if the farmer did forget and leave it open."

It is important not to slow down the movement of the story by making it a tool for introducing too many facts. Action and feel-

ing must be present throughout and on such details as are easily visualized or related to meaningful information. Participation by the children is entirely optional in a story of this kind, and it may be meager or copious. The teacher can tell it all, or she can let the children extensively relate their own experiences in connection with the story, and then wind it up herself with a sentence or two if the story period must end abruptly for any reason. It is necessary to restrict any one child's participation to that which interests the group as a whole. What is interesting to the narrator may be boring to others. It is for this reason that we do not encourage teachers to have children "tell their own stories." It is too difficult to hold a group's attention for very long unless the teacher has a story in mind which they can help her build into a whole that has a satisfying outcome.

In concluding this discussion of literature in the nursery school, only one point needs emphasis, and that is, if nursery schools have an adequate supply of good books, and teachers know two or three stories to tell really well, there is no problem of discipline at story-telling time and no dearth of story experience for the children. When schools cannot afford to buy enough books, teachers can make illustrated "teacher-controlled" scrapbooks. A large supply of stories is needed, and every effort should be made to obtain good ones.

Music

Similar to the rôle of literature in the nursery school is that of music, because with these two activities we introduce the preschool child to forms of adult art which we approve and which we hope will find his approval now and, more importantly, as he matures. If literature in the nursery school offers a challenge, the problem of how best to present music is even more challenging, since here the teacher has little more to go on than intuition. Very little has been published about music in the nursery school. Few nursery school teachers are musicians; few musicians have worked in the nursery school. Thus many questions regarding musical experience remain not only unanswered, but even unraised. The few familiar principles we have to go by are here stated briefly in terms of minimum essentials for the public nursery school. The ideal program would include teacher-musicians or musician-teachers, and while we can

hope for such a staff in the future, in the meantime let us discuss what can be done in every school and by all teachers.

Listening to Music

Music in the nursery school is of two kinds: that made for the children to listen to, and that made by the children's own singing or playing on very simple instruments. Music that the children listen to includes phonograph music, singing by the teacher, and playing of an instrument by the teacher or other adults. It should be offered at the proper time and place. During the midmorning rest period for two-year-olds, the phonograph is always played. This seems to be conducive to quieter rest. At the end of the day when few children are in school, the phonograph may be played if it seems desirable, for then the teacher can supervise the phonograph and the other activities, too. Occasionally with the five-year-olds a record is played during the morning activity time because it is of a nature which interests the children to hear in connection with their play. Otherwise we do not play the phonograph, even at the request of a new child. At the end of the day the phonograph playing does not disturb because the children have already had plenty of opportunity to play with the enjoyment that comes from good concentration.

Playing of the piano, the violin, or another instrument by the teacher is not very satisfactory unless it is in conjunction with the children's singing or playing on their own instruments. If a visitor comes in to perform for the children, the program must be carefully arranged to suit their interest and attention span, and the performing artist must understand this and not expect too much attention.

Singing by one teacher or two teachers together can be done in lieu of the piano or phonograph if the school does not possess either instrument. The singing then can take place during the two-year-olds' morning rest period, at scheduled music periods, and at the end of the day. In addition to these times, the teacher can occasionally sing little phrases to the children while they are playing out in the yard. The reasons for restricting times and places for music stem from the other needs of the children, the limitations of physical set-up, and the nature of the child's interest in music. Too

much or ill-timed music is a strain rather than a pleasure. It is important to realize that formal periods of just listening to good music are premature in nursery school.

Singing and Playing Instruments

Except for the rest period, opportunities for active participation in music should be offered to the children. The children's own singing and playing should be a daily experience. A separate room is needed for this, be it the office, a hallway, or an alcove corner. The children can go to the music center in small groups of the same age level. This will reduce the problems of holding attention and will help prevent disrupting behavior. If the chairs are grouped in a semi-circle at right angles to the end of the piano, the teacher can more easily see the children's faces and they can see the piano keys. The children's instruments can be on a bench or table near-by where each child can readily get the one he likes. Some formality about taking and putting back the instruments helps to get good attention for their proper use. Haphazard play with them should not be approved. The child who is disturbing or distracting should be sent back to the playroom or out of doors. Denial of the use of a favorite instrument must not be employed as a punishment. The music period can include both singing and rhythm band, but not simultaneously. When the children sing, the instruments should not be in their hands because it is too much of a mental effort for young children to hold them quiet. Playing them while singing is conducive to making noise rather than music.

The music for singing must be short, simple, melodious, interesting, and properly pitched. Much of the published music seems to be pitched too high for the preschool voice, and teachers should learn to transpose where it seems necessary. Interesting music has words with understandable meaning or pure sound appeal. The melody and brevity of a song are what make it easy to learn, and the children certainly enjoy songs that they can sing through better than those where they can only fill in certain notes. For this reason, we begin with two-year-olds on songs as short as eight or ten notes. Five-year-olds can sing as many as fifty notes, especially if there is repetition of the melody.

We should aim to teach songs to the children so that they know



Portable lockers, built in sections of two, three, and four each, are useful for making partitions. Here they are used to make a niche for the cot dolly which has just been pulled out for use. The double shelves in the lockers and the ledge for sitting or stepping up are very useful. See page 26.



Note the towel racks made of plywood in two tiers for limited wall space. Locker marker designs show on back of rack when long tapes are used on the towels.

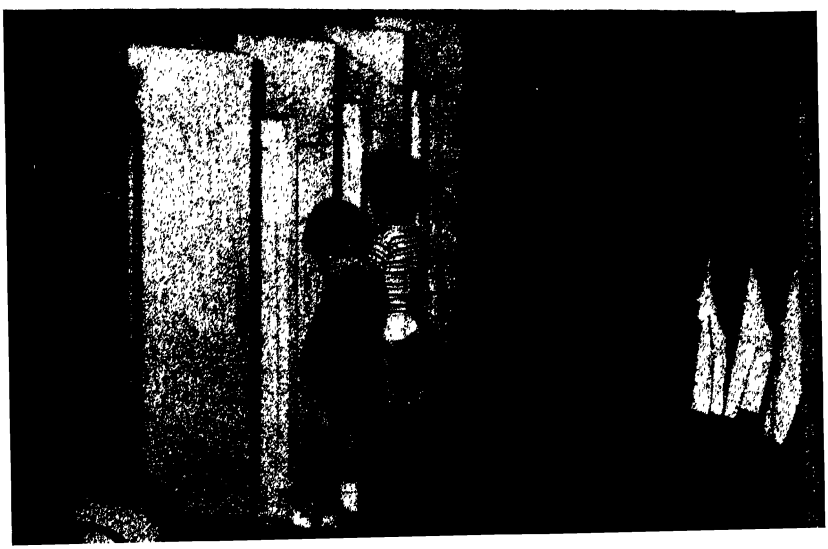
Even the smallest toilets made are too high for some two-year-olds to use without touching to get their balance.

Old public school toilet converted for nursery school use. Large toilet seats were replaced by small ones. A chair



Robert Overstreet

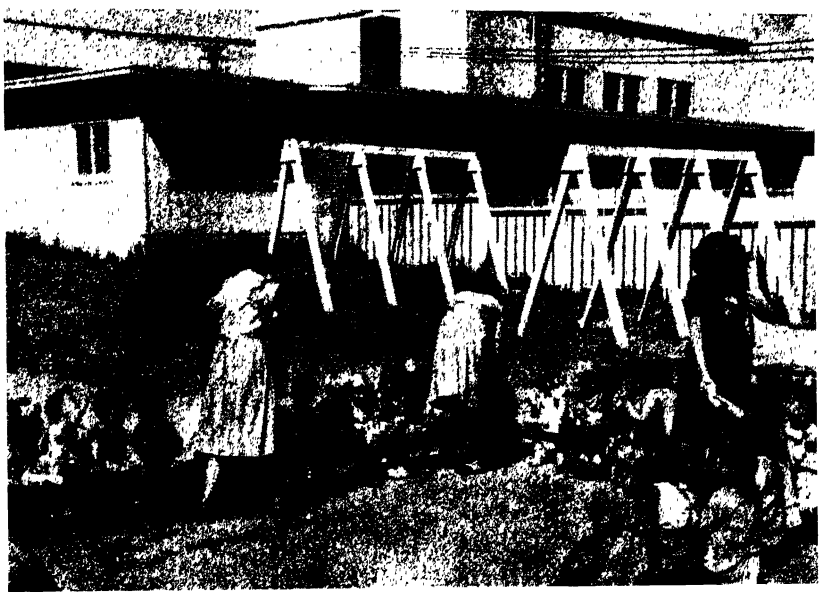
Tom Weber





Washing hands must become a business-like affair if maximum use of space and staff is to be made, and routines are not to be slowed up.

Refreshment period. Having everyone sit down for afternoon milk or morning cod liver oil and juice is better for teachers and for children when there is a big attendance.



them and can sing them, for this brings maximum enjoyment. We do not teach singing for any purpose other than enjoyment since singing is not a means to any other end, as, for example, reading or writing. No pressure should ever be put on a child to perform, but the teacher can give individual children opportunity to sing alone. The children will learn to sing if the songs are well selected and presented in a pleasant atmosphere. The teacher must herself enjoy the music, be able to play in good rhythm, and to sing on pitch. She can recite as well as sing the words aloud so that everyone really hears them. A new song should be played at a slower tempo until it is more familiar. Phrases can be repeated and the volume of the voices changed at different singings to give variety until there has been enough repetition for the song to become familiar. All this can be done without boring or nagging the children, for it is as important not to do this as it is to have them learn the song. While they enjoy hearing the music and tagging along with their own singing, maximum pleasure comes when the group really know the songs they sing. New songs should not be introduced so rapidly that easy learning is frustrated. A "work period" on a new song, followed by a repetition of two or three familiar ones, and at the end the rhythm band, makes a good music period of about twenty minutes. Periods ranging from ten to twenty minutes are suitable to the interest span and to the school's schedule.

The children should be encouraged to use their voices with proper pitch and volume. Their variable emotional states often make this difficult, but the teacher can do a great deal toward influencing the bellowing or the monotone muttering and the lips that move while making no sound. In other words, singing time is for singing primarily and not just for sociability. However, no one should ever be barred from the singing group just because he prefers to audit the session. It is of paramount importance not to make any child feel self-conscious over his singing ability or lack of it. Emotional insecurity usually lies back of the failure to participate fully.

Sometimes the children sing little phrases while they are at play. The teacher can take up such a phrase and sing it, too. Other children will often join in. Such phrases can be sung with "da, da, da" or with words which describe action, such as "Johnny rides the bicycle," or "Mary goes up, Peter goes down." All children sing

certain phrases which seem to be innate rather than learned. Every teacher knows how often they sing "sol, sol, sol, la, sol, mi." Such spontaneous singing should be reserved for the yard and should not be over done.

The Rhythm Band

Playing the rhythm band instruments is also a matter of learning techniques. The child who is unable to beat the drum or shake the bells in assured rhythm may be able to do so if the teacher holds and guides his hand and arm through such an experience. If a teacher has the group alone, she can stop playing the piano to do this and sing "da, da, da" for the music's rhythm.

The rhythm band can consist of any number of instruments, but several of each kind must be available to give everyone a chance frequently to play each type. The instruments must be exchanged during the period to avoid monotony. The aim is to have the children use the instruments in time with the music of the piano. Of course, the exact keeping of time is not to be expected, but the period is not just for making random noises to piano accompaniment. The child who is wild and disturbing should be sent from the group to work out his enthusiasms otherwise. Where there is no piano, or no one to play it, the phonograph can be used for the rhythm band, but the teacher will have to stop the record at suitable intervals and not play to the end, for the time period consumed by a single rhythm piece should not exceed one or two minutes because that is as long as a good performance usually holds up. For two-year-olds, the period must be shorter, so that they can play rhythmically to the end. When the piece is too long, they tend to get out of step before the end. Where there is no piano or phonograph, the teacher can sing a song with marked rhythm or can clap her hands.

Music written in 2/4, 3/4, or 4/4 time is best for rhythms and singing, but some 6/8 pieces are also suitable. Almost anyone can learn to make tones on the piano for rhythms. Even one hand will do, but of course the teacher who plays well without having to read the notes can give her eyes to the children and will have the best results.

In most schools there is not room for children to have much body

activity in relation to rhythms, but in a small space they can at least march about, carrying their instruments, or improvise arm movements. Where there is space for them to run, to skip, to walk on hands and feet, to crawl, to tiptoe, and to improvise "dance" steps, this is a very valuable experience. Such rhythm enjoyment can be had with piano or phonograph music. In this activity we do not strive for such set responses as we do with singing and the rhythm band since no one spoils the effect for the group by being out of time. Furthermore, the muscular coördination involved in total body movement with music must not be taught as specific gestures. The free natural movements of the child are proper expression, provided they are in their general character somehow related to the music or to the needs of the group.

In concluding these paragraphs on music, it may be well to say that musical instruments should be kept in good condition. The piano should be tuned at least once a year, the phonograph records must be free from cracks and worn-out grooves which destroy the tone. An electric phonograph makes life simpler for the teacher. The machine should be equipped with a good volume control. It should always be out of the children's reach so that they are not tempted to play with it, and so that the teacher does not have to watch it constantly. Whatever mechanical devices or methods we use for offering musical experience must meet minimum musical standards even at the nursery school level.

In literature and music we introduce the child to adult art forms with which we wish him to be familiar and which he should learn to cherish. With other art experiences, such as painting and clay, we give no guidance, but let the child express his own concepts. Selection of music and stories is dependent upon the financial budget of a school and the discrimination of the person who buys books and records. In the bibliography of this chapter, suggestions are made according to age levels. While some books suit more than one age, they are not repeated under the different ages because teachers will find out for themselves how extensively each book can be used. New books for young children are published each year so that there is no excuse for any school to be without enough good books.

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12

Toileting and Sleeping Routines

By "ROUTINES" we mean eating, sleeping, toileting, dressing and morning health inspecting. All the happenings planned for the children can be classified either as routines or as activities. Eating routines are discussed in Chapter 15, morning health inspection in Chapter 16; and in this chapter sleeping, dressing, and toileting will be discussed.

Preparations for Sleeping

Sleeping, like eating, cannot be forced; it can only be induced by suggestion, for sleepiness, like hunger, is to some extent contagious. Children appear to take naps as well as to eat more readily in groups than in solitude. A few children are exceptions to this rule, and all children have to learn how to eat, to sleep, and to play in a group. Seeing others fall asleep is conducive to a child's doing likewise; therefore we use no screens between beds. Having the beds placed fairly close together also seems to help, and a darkened sleep-room is definitely an asset.

Setting the stage for sleep time is the first step toward having a good sleep period. The use of soft or whispering voices by the teachers is helpful too. The children should go from the lunch table to the toilet and then directly to their naps. Any interval of play, of storytelling, or of looking at pictures is definitely detrimental, and the children should not be given any choice as to what they do after they have lunched and toileted. They must without exception go directly to their beds. Those who are old enough to

do so may fetch their own blankets and pillows from the lockers, and put them on their beds. The beds should be ready, having been put down by the housekeeper during lunch. It is best not to have individual beds or regular bed places assigned to each child, but rather to have each child go to a bed which he chooses with whatever guidance from teachers is needed for problem sleepers. However, a poor sleeper should, as far as possible, be surrounded by good ones.

Children do not remove any clothing except shoes. Sweaters should have been removed before lunch. For the bedwetter the coveralls can also be removed until continence improves. Since undressing is tedious, causes friction, and delays children from getting onto their beds, we do not recommend it. More about this is said later on in this chapter.

Since children do not go to sleep readily in the presence of strangers, new teachers must be worked gradually into sleep-room duty. Student teachers must be excluded until the children become familiar with them. The sleep-room atmosphere must be as uniform as possible from day to day, and managed by teachers who are familiar with and well liked by the children, because some children are actually afraid to go to sleep except in an environment where they feel emotionally comfortable. The sleep-room should never be left unattended, or attended only by a new and strange teacher, because a child who wakes up, as a rule needs to be reassured in order to fall asleep again, and must also be prevented from waking up others.

It is not wise, except on rare occasions, to remove a child from the sleep-room because he is disturbing others. If a disturbing child is always removed, he does not learn to go to sleep in the group. This ability can be developed only by keeping the child in the room, not by taking him away. If the practice of removal is started, particularly with a new child, he comes to look upon the removal as part of his routine. If he experiences the exclusion from the sleep-room as a kind of punishment, his resistance to sleeping will only be increased. If being taken to another place appears to him a reward, then he is likely to continue demanding special treatment. Since there is no place to which the child can be taken, except to the isolation room, confusion will also result in his mind as to the real purpose of the removal. The isolation room should be used

only for illness, so that whenever a child has to be placed there no bad associations from former occupancy make him resistant.

Even the newly enrolled child who cries at sleep time should be kept in the room, but carefully and constantly attended by a teacher, who holds him in her lap, if necessary, or who preferably strokes and comforts him while he lies on the bed. If he gets teacher sympathy and attention, the other children will go to sleep in spite of his crying; but if they see him neglected, or hear him cry from a distance and do not know what is going on, they become anxious and do not so readily fall asleep. Teachers must patiently allow as long a time as is necessary for this learning. It is a rare child who needs special attention for weeks before he will settle down quickly by himself.

The child who sits up or stands up on his bed should be told to lie down, or he should be picked up and laid down by the teacher who squats down or sits on a chair near-by — never on the edge of the bed — and tries to keep the child in a lying position on the bed. As often as he gets up, she puts him down; but she must be very careful not to show anger or annoyance, or to seem to be punishing, or to create physical frustration that causes mounting anger in the child. When a child gets too upset, the teacher should take him out of the room, or let him out and carry him about or let him walk about for a few moments, then go back into the room and get a fresh start. She will have to be prepared to "sit it out" — but on the basis of her superior will, rather than of physical force. It is very hard to sit it out with the child who, instead of crying, makes a joke of it all; but if the teacher keeps a serious face, refuses to argue or to discuss, and makes a few gestures repeatedly in firm but kind fashion, the child will soon decide that there is no humor in this situation, and not getting any more fun out of it, will eventually settle down. If children are told to keep their eyes closed and to try to lie still, resistance to sleeping is overcome in some cases.

It is worth everything to go slowly with a new child or newly developed sleeping problem, because any misstep causes further resistance. Emphasizing to the child the fact that all the children are doing the same thing will help to prevent the child from becoming negative. Furthermore, a battle over sleeping between teacher and child can spoil their relationship as it carries over into other times of the day. A teacher should never hesitate to call upon

another teacher for assistance or relief in dealing with a sleepless child, if she is getting nowhere with him, for when a battle of wills has developed, bringing another teacher into the scene may do the trick. However, if all is going well in the handling of a sleepless child, then any change is hazardous, and the teacher should not leave the bedside until the child is asleep. It is unfortunate that children sometimes are able to go to sleep only when a certain teacher sits by. This creates hardship for all when she cannot be present. But the attachment of a child for one teacher must be respected and indulged until he develops wider confidence in other adults as well.

General Sleep-Period Procedures

Putting children to sleep is no easy matter, and it is difficult to describe just exactly how it is done. We do know that the school atmosphere is the most important factor. Children who are allowed to express too much destructive aggression do not get to sleep readily. Children whose natural impulses are too much suppressed by severe discipline also have trouble going to sleep. The spoiled child cannot get to sleep easily because he is not accustomed to doing anything at a time when he has not chosen to do it, and he does not care to go to sleep on schedule. Group sleeping is helpful to many anxious children since they feel that it must be safe if others do it so easily and with no ill effects. As with eating, the success of sleeping must be developed for the group as a whole to insure individual success. As each new child is affected by the atmosphere of a sleeping group, he joins the crowd with the same response as all the others. When the group morale at sleep time breaks down, teachers must be changed or additional teachers must be assigned to the room until it is restored. Generally speaking, we can say that a sleep time is either good or bad and in contrast to other periods, seldom a half-way affair.

The techniques for putting children to sleep cannot be learned out of a book; they must be learned by observation and experience. They cannot even be stated accurately in print, because teachers cannot tell exactly how they do it. The procedures described here are part of the picture, but all the subtleties of teacher-child relationships are essential features, and they are more accurately put to test in the sleep-room than anywhere else in nursery school.

Children should be allowed to fall asleep in any posture. Thumb-sucking and masturbating should not be interfered with at sleep time. The position of a child's limbs or his whole body may be changed while he is asleep if the teacher thinks that he is tense and that she can help him to relax without waking him. Free use of the blanket should be allowed as an aid to getting to sleep, but throughout the nap time teachers should check blanket covering to see that the children are adequately covered and have not too much blanket around the neck.

The minimum nap period is two hours: from 1:00 to 3:00 o'clock in our schools. At 4:00 o'clock any sleeping child is awakened. On days when, for some reason or other, most of the children waken early, they can get up at once to go about the business of toileting and putting on their shoes. Teachers can control the toileting, the shoelacing and continued sleeping, all simultaneously, by letting the children get up from their beds one or two at a time. Several children must be toileted, dressed, and ready to go outside before one of the two sleep-room teachers can go outside, leaving the other teacher to attend the remaining sleepers. The first few children to waken may have to lie quietly on their beds until a few others awake. This rule is not a serious hardship for most children and it encourages longer sleeping by all, because the children learn that early to wake does not mean early to play. The waking is more natural and leisurely if the children, when they wake, have a choice of getting up at once, or of lying quietly for as long as they care to, and this choice can be given to all but the very earliest wakers. Some children like to get up at once, others to lie quietly for some time. To have all children get up from their beds simultaneously would mean rushing some and forcing others to stay down longer than is agreeable to them, and would cause congestion with toileting and shoelacing. The use of soft or whispering voices is proper at getting-up time, too.

The procedure of having the child go from the toilet to shoelacing, then to the table for milk and crackers, to his locker next for wraps, and after that to go outdoors, works very well. One teacher can attend to the toileting, the other can help with shoelacing, milk drinking and wrap getting, until a group is ready for her to take outside. By this time there is no need any more for protecting the remaining sleepers' rest; the other teacher can devote

herself to the children who are already active and she does not have to worry if the noise wakens all children. During the first part of the getting-up time, however, teachers must watch to see that early wakers do not disturb those still sleeping. Where more than two teachers can be in a room, this control is more easily achieved. Teachers and housekeepers fold the blankets and put them away.

The Morning Rest Periods

The purpose of the morning rest period is the reduction of physical fatigue. Unlike the sleep period, when children need to get complete mental and nervous rest, the morning rest period is designed to prevent too much muscle fatigue. Children who arrive at school as early in the morning as seven or seven-thirty have usually had to be wakened from the night's sleep to get ready to leave on schedule. If the school building is cold at the time of their arrival, as it may well be, the stage is not very well set for creative activities. The weather is usually too cold for outside play, and in the winter it is still dark outside. Therefore, a rest on the cots at seven in the morning is a welcome start to the school day for many children, some of whom even go to sleep. There is no way to know for sure how much sleep a child has had the night before, and the morning rest period is compensating if the night's sleep was curtailed. There are a few children who arrive early who do not like to go back to bed in the morning, but if such children are allowed to play, others will want to do likewise. With the activities set up for 7:00 A.M., everything can look pretty boring by 10:00 A.M., after which time there is still a long day ahead. It seems unwise to start the day off so quickly with the activities, just because a minor portion of the children are more ready for them than for the rest. While it is somewhat of a restraint on these few to rest on their beds, the benefit to the whole group warrants this restriction of a minority.

The room should be darkened for the early morning rest, and as the children come into the room they should find the beds ready. Health inspection of each child must take place just outside the play room where the light is good. One teacher can inspect and supervise a sleep-room for eight or ten children. While resting, the children should not be allowed to look at books, nor should the phono-

graph be played. A limited amount of not too stimulating conversation is permissible since this helps those who are not tired and does not seem to disturb the ones who want to rest completely. There is no need to take off shoes, and if the room is cold, a sweater can be left on too, though the blanket covering is usually sufficient. At the end of the period, the teachers fold the blankets and put them in the lockers. The children go to the toilet before sitting down to breakfast.

The midmorning rest period for the two-year-olds is a routine which forces them to stop running or standing up and to get into a posture which relieves the strain on back and leg muscles. No effort is made at this time to reduce mental stimulation, and so the phonograph is played during this period. The mental stimulation of listening to quiet, soothing music is not a strain; on the contrary, children may get bored if there is no music, for they usually are alert at this time. The playing of music with a strong rhythm will make them want to get up and move. Just because they are alert and active and will continue to be so for more than another hour, a rest period for back and leg muscles is needed to prevent undue fatigue before lunch. When the rest period does not come until just before lunch when they are very fatigued, it is ill-timed. Thus, the traditional pre-lunch rest comes too late as is evidenced by children who go to sleep at this time and have to be wakened to eat.

Resistance to resting at 10:45 is shown by a few children, but we do not hesitate to interrupt their play in spite of any objections, for the rest is good for all two-year-olds. They soon realize that they can go back to their play in a short time. The toys and materials for room and yard activities should not be put away during this rest time, but left ready to go right back to. Insofar as possible, children are encouraged to relax by lying flat, but such movements as rolling about, kicking up heels, alternate sitting up and lying down are all appropriate for this period, because the back and leg muscles get enough rest even if there is some such body activity. The nursery school which operates for the morning only usually has one rest period in the middle of the morning and relative quiet is usually required at such a rest time.

Sleeping and Resting Problems

The different degrees of quiet and relaxation that are in keeping with the meaning of the three rest periods of the day come to be understood and respected by children and teachers alike. The early-morning rest is relatively quiet, the midmorning one is relatively agitated, the afternoon rest definitely means sleep. Children come to enjoy them all when the teachers handle them well, and it is only occasionally that a new child gives trouble.

For the child who needs more rest than that provided by the day's program, the isolation room should be used rather than a corner of the playroom. Such practice is a protection when the need for extra rest may be caused by an incipient infection that shows no other symptoms.

The child who offers resistance to all the rest periods is usually the very one who is most in need of rest. An inexperienced teacher may say of him, "He can't rest, it's no use to make him try," and she may get restless herself while she is trying to calm his jittery behavior. It is necessary to be patient with such a child, and to reassure him quietly and firmly that he is going to learn how to rest as the others do. In most instances such a child is over-anxious and in a highstrung state so that he can sleep only when he is completely exhausted. To make him feel guilty for not sleeping is to increase his anxiety. When he insists he doesn't want to or is unable to sleep, the teacher should tell him that he doesn't have to, but that he is supposed to lie on his bed, and that he must not talk or disturb other children. She should not carry on a conversation with him because this provides him with an escape and prevents his being quiet. When he has learned to lie quietly and relax, he will eventually also fall asleep. Few, indeed, are the children who after a short period of nursery school experience do not regularly go to sleep. And this is as true for the four- and five-year-olds as it is for two-year-olds.

When the children all sleep well and regularly, a few parents may complain that their children do not go to sleep promptly at night. Many factors must be considered in trying to evaluate a situation of this kind. Questions such as how early was the child put to bed, did he have coffee for supper, did he hear frightening radio programs, did other children stay up later, was he spanked

for getting out of bed, and was he left with an incompetent sitter would have to be answered before we could assume that his sleep in school was too long. Our attitude toward such complaints must be that since most children need the sleep they get at school, the school's program is set up for that much sleep. Naturally, we cannot set our nap period to fit bedtime hours that are as early as 6 P.M. or as late as 10 P.M. Yet this is the range of bedtime hours for our children, and many home situations do not allow a change.

Dressing and Clothing Problems

Dressing and undressing at school and at home constitute one of the inevitable miseries of children's lives. To begin with, their clothing may be uncomfortable because it is too light or too heavy, too big or too little, or too "good" or "no good"; garments have buttons and zippers, and straps and buckles and ties, and safety pins and other fastenings, all of which are hard for the child to manage or have managed by adults. Clothes fall off the shoulders, get tight in the crotch, slip down from the waist, stick at the elbows, hang down over the hands, and in other ways frustrate the movements of children and make them uncomfortable. But all this is more or less inevitable, for climate and housing complicate clothing problems, not to mention those that manufacturers, storekeepers, and proud or negligent mothers produce. It is safe to say that few children ever have complete clothing comfort for an entire day. Shoulder straps alone are a nuisance. The boys must wear pants with shoulder straps because they do not have hips large enough to hold up pants with elastic or belts. The girls often wear overalls with straps to protect knees from bruises and for additional warmth. Shoulder straps worn under a slip-on sweater, a coat-sweater, a coat, or under snowsuit pants, can make going to the toilet as complicated as a striptease act. But there is no avoiding all this until some genius designs clothing for children that is simpler and more suitable.

Our problem, then, is what to do about all the mêlée of garments and to decide when what should be off and when what should be on, who puts on what and when, and who takes off what and when. In all this, however, there are really only two things to consider: one, protection of body temperature; the other, reduction of emo-

tional struggle with clothing. The first consideration is discussed under Health, and the other can be summarized with the rule that the child should have as much help with dressing and undressing as he asks for. Perhaps, that statement should be qualified to read "almost as much help," but helping is the only way to decrease strain and friction. It is either the child's emotional immaturity or his physical incapacity which make him seek help. Our rule is: when in doubt, help. Independence about dressing and undressing is never made a moral issue, for maturity or capacity is not developed by refusing to help and development may even be retarded by so doing. Therefore, while teachers should see that children are given every opportunity to be as self-sufficient as they care to be about dressing and undressing, the children should not be forced to rely on themselves in their dressing problems. True independence will come more quickly if the child is not rushed. Incidentally, with the putting on and taking off of hats and rubbers, coats and sweaters, and the letting down of pants at the toilet, we do teach the children in nursery school some manual dexterity and some respect for the proper care of clothing. But this is done without overzealousness and compulsiveness on the part of teachers.

This approach is not in accordance with general nursery school practice, and the underlying reasoning should be presented in detail. During the twenties and thirties, when nursery schools were growing up in this country and were developing their methods and practices, the child in the research nursery school of a university was likely to be one who was waited upon hand and foot at home by two parents, one or more servants, and possibly several other admiring adult relatives or friends. For his training it was indeed essential that the nursery school teacher keep hands off and give him a chance to discover his clothes and find out how they stayed on the body. The whole "hands off, teacher," method was developed for children who were being treated as a species that was becoming rarer, and the research attitude of observing what the child was capable of doing controlled the teacher's behavior.

The situation today is very different, particularly for children in the child-care nursery schools. These children have their homes broken, their mothers working from morning to night away from them, and the pressure of life making an impression that "no one has enough time for me," rather than that "people hang over me

all the time," as the type of child in the early nursery school may have felt. For this reason, we must give the present-day nursery school children more help and attention than was considered proper ten or twenty years ago.

Children who ordinarily are quite self-sufficient regarding clothing may go through short or long spells of being dependent. Such behavior is regressive and must be treated as such. As a rule, regression occurs when too much has been demanded of a child in the way of achievement. It is ill-advised not to coöperate with such a harmless kind of regression as a child's wanting his shoes laced or his sweater buttoned. We must look for a cause if regressive symptoms of this sort pile up, but incidental regressions should be readily indulged, for we should never forget that to some extent teachers must give indulgent care that normally the children's mothers would or should give. We are protected from the danger of being too indulgent by the basic facts of the school situation: we have too much to do for too many children to be able to spoil any of them with over-attention.

One reason why we do not undress the children for naps is simply that the whole process is a great strain on both teachers and children. It is also time-consuming and makes a situation for stalling, playing, and keeping in a wakeful mood. If the undressing is done before lunch, and the children put on bathrobes, even more objections can be raised. It means that time is taken away from the activity period, which is by no means too long; that children eat in bathrobes, which get very dirty from food spilling and must be washed by parents every week; and that room temperature cannot be set satisfactorily because warmths and weights of bathrobes vary too much. Children in bathrobes look like orphans at the lunch table, and lockers with bathrobes look messy. Also, children get bathrobes wet with urine and water in the toilet room, which means that parents are put to the expense of buying at least three or four bathrobes a year for school. At dressing time after the nap the room is usually chilly, and children's bodies are too exposed to draughts as they come out of a warm bed. Both children and teachers get to detest the undressing process, and more staff members must be on duty after the nap if children have been undressed for it. Since early morning teachers go off duty before all children are up, afternoon teachers are heavily overburdened.

In our schools, slippers are as unwelcome as bathrobes. They get misplaced, lost, dirty, and their use would constitute one more routine that is time-consuming. There is no evidence that children eat lunch better when they wear slippers instead of shoes. What is far more important is that their feet rest comfortably on the floor. And schools which insist on slippers for comfort and ignore comfortable chair and table heights, are not consistent. Neither is there any evidence to show that children sleep better in bathrobes than in playclothes. Bathrobes do not stay in position as the child shifts his sleeping positions. Removing of shoes, unfastening of shoulder straps, and unbuttoning of tight waist or cuff buttons, is all the undressing that is necessary for a long and sound sleep. The tradition of undressing for nap is merely a tradition. Children can learn at home how to put on and take off their indoor clothing. They all learn eventually to dress and undress themselves. The whole business is pushed too much by teachers and by parents who look too eagerly for signs of maturity that save work for them.

There is no need for children to follow a set order for putting on the various outdoor garments. The hat or rubbers can go on first or last. It won't take long for the child to learn that he has to put on his sweater before his coat. Nor does it matter whether he cannot or will not turn his sweater right side out. An emotional unwillingness to do something is as valid a reason for helping as is a physical incapacity. And in our public school situation where the pupil-teacher ratio is high, helping children with wraps greatly facilitates the routine and saves time for more interesting play. Unlike the eating situation, where the offer of physical assistance can increase the resistance, the child usually welcomes help with clothing, and we can give all that is needed with no ill effect.

All the foregoing applies to the child who wants help. The independent child must not be forced about dressing, although he may be restrained from going outside if he refuses to put on warm clothing. Sometimes with two-year-olds, it is proper to override a general negativism by going right ahead with putting on a coat and a hat or with taking down pants. But where the protest is very intense, it is usually best not to insist but to bide one's time. Where a child, or several children, do not want to do any part of the lacing of their shoes, they should get help – possibly a bit delayed so that it encourages self-help, but not beyond that. To put the

laces in any of the holes is the first step of learning for most children, and when a child insists upon a crooked lacing up of his shoes and resists having them changed, the teacher should let it go and try later to change the lacing before the mother comes, but should not spoil the child's sense of achievement.

Toileting Procedures

Toilet habits, like those of eating and sleeping, are emotionally complex. The toileting is especially so because the problem of sex enters in and adds difficulties for both children and adults. We use the word "toileting" to apply to all uses made of the toiletroom — for urinating, for defecating, and for washing. For the three steps we use the expressions "to urinate," "to have a b.m.," and "to wash." We use the expression "go to the toilet" or "go to the bathroom" or "go to the washroom" to mean for the purpose of urinating or for having a b.m., and not for washing alone because washing without urinating or defecating is infrequent and is referred to as "washing." The word "toilet" is also used to refer to the toilet bowl, and "wash basin" to refer to the basin. We do not say "lavatory" because it is confusing. "Bathroom" is used, although it is a misnomer, because it is the familiar word used at home in all these situations. The word "toilet" need not be avoided, because doing so reflects an over-nice attitude which is inappropriate in nursery school, and because it is more appropriate than any other single word. We don't say "the john" or "the little boys' room," nor do we use any other slangy, evasive terms.

Toileting is a routine, but it should not be made into a ritual. There need be no twenty-nine steps to the process as recommended by one college, nor twelve steps for washing as recommended by another. The essential steps of toileting are simple and few, but attention to the children's attitudes toward toileting is far more important than the exact steps of procedure. A child either needs help with manipulating his clothing at the toilet, or he is self-sufficient and does not need help. The same is true of his washing. His need for help may be due to incompetent or to irrelevant behavior, or to his disturbing of others. In any event, the help which the teacher gives has more phychological than technical importance.

Before discussing procedures, it is necessary to state our learning

aims for children in this matter of toileting. We know that many children suffer greatly from home training in their struggle to achieve continence. Therefore, our first object is to make toileting a pleasure – not a misery. To do this, the toilet should be a sociable, friendly place where no scoldings are heard and where an air of enjoyment as well as one of duty exists. We seek to reduce anxiety over toileting to a minimum, and to counteract the establishment of compulsive habits. The mental hygiene aspects of toileting are more important for us than those of physical hygiene, which are likely to be emphasized at home. Although we train children to wash their hands before eating in order to reduce the intake of unhealthy germs, their washing at other times is either for esthetic reasons or for the purpose of protecting clothes and furniture against paint or paste or some other substance which has gotten on the children's hands. It is psychologically unhealthy to make them wash in every instance after urinating. Washing is agreeable to children of nursery school age, and our aim is to make washing a habit before eating. We like to protect clothing and furniture, but the dirt as such is not looked upon as a bad thing. With toileting our aim is to develop the child's self-sufficiency in caring for his own toilet needs, and to avoid the development of neurotic traits associated with the functions of elimination.

Our general purposes must not be translated into rigid specific requirements about self-management of clothing, or achievement of continence. All we ask is that the over-all trend of a child's behavior be toward better control and ability, while the tempo of development is left to the individual child. A child who, in view of his age, should be able to handle his own clothing but does not, may be acting helpless for some reason, and teachers should feel free to give help when requested provided opportunity for independence is offered first. Steady or occasional incontinence should be looked upon as a symptom of emotional immaturity or disturbance and must be treated with understanding.

The amount of teacher help that will be given in the toilet depends upon two factors: one is, how much help is actually needed by the child either physically or psychologically, and the other, how much help must be given to expedite the group toileting at certain periods. Where thirty children must use three toilets and three wash basins, the process can be undesirably time-consuming

unless teachers expedite the process by helping. This is not in accordance with traditional nursery school procedure which has heretofore aimed to develop the child's independence no matter how much time is needed. The psychological desirability of placing such emphasis on independence at the expense of a long-drawn-out toileting process is to be questioned. If seven minutes per child are allowed for the toileting, as one college recommends, the procedure inevitably consists of numerous compulsive steps, and besides being an unhealthy process it is unsocial, for the children are kept waiting too long for their turn. A speeded up toileting procedure means better accommodation of more children with limited facilities. Children learn to move with dispatch in the toilet if teachers give considerable help. While dawdling in the toilet seems to be pleasurable to children, it cannot be allowed at times when the groups are using the toilet as, for example, just before or just after lunch.

General Toileting Techniques

The expediting of the toileting can be done without bringing undue pressure on the children and will not cause resistance from them if it is done in a friendly way. In fact, the toileting process that moves along fairly quickly seems quite agreeable to children, especially to those who come with resistance created by fussy training over toileting and washing. Time can be saved in various ways: two boys can urinate in one stool at a time if there are no partitions between toilets and if there is sufficient standing room. The teacher can flush the toilets as needed or let the children help with the flushing, but there is no necessity to have each child flush the toilet after he is through. This would mean constant noise; furthermore, the flushing handle is not always within reach; children tend to want to play with the flushing; and there is sometimes conflict when one child starts to use the toilet before the former user has completed flushing it. We do not have to worry about teaching correct flushing habits at this age, for such learning can take place later. The teacher may turn the water on and off to help a child get washed more quickly, but not if he prefers to do so himself. She can hand out the paper towels as the children come up to her for them, and she may help to get the soap on the right places or to rub off some

of the dirt from hands or faces. There should be no set rules about all these matters, but only a constant effort to let the children help themselves as much as they can within the limits of the physical setup, and in consideration of the time element involved. The whole matter is one of teachers having friendly, helpful attitudes and not feeling that complete self-help in a child must be achieved at any given age. Incidentally, the twos are sometimes more businesslike in the toilet than the fives, though actually less capable of managing the job. This is because the process is new and interesting, and they are not burdened with the full responsibility for their behavior. It is evident that lasting independence comes sooner when it is not forced at too early an age, and the pressures put on modern children are often too great. A little babying is healthy if teachers are not seeking to make children either too dependent or too conforming.

The nursery school with only one toilet per ten children will not be able to give many children time to have b.m.'s at school without creating hardship to others. Efforts should be made through the parents to get the children habituated to having b.m.'s at home. Again, this is one of the compromises we must make if we are to serve more children with limited facilities. The nursery school of tomorrow will have one toilet to every five children, and the school can then allow all the time needed for b.m.'s at school. The children who regularly have b.m.'s after lunch should be toileted last so that others are not held up. No record is kept of b.m.'s for reasons given in Chapter 19. Teachers usually need to help wipe off the young children, particularly the girls. Care should be taken to wipe upward, away from the vagina, for feces in the vagina can cause infections.

All the foregoing must not be interpreted to mean that children are rushed or put under pressure in the toileting. The child who has to have a b.m. must be given all the time he needs. It is the teacher who must be quick and alert, acting with poise and an unhurried air. Especially must she be quick to get the clothes down when someone can hardly wait, and at such times she makes a reassuring remark such as, "Down come the pants; Sarah waits till her pants are down." Saying "Hurry up," creates anxiety and has a negative effect on the ability to retain the urine. Not infrequently children like to withhold urine or feces as a means of showing their

power over adults, and we must not play into their hands in fixing this habit by showing irritation over the time they take to eliminate after assuming an eliminating posture. When a child sits or stands too long, the teacher can say, "Maybe you don't have to go, you can get up now and let someone else go." It is unwise to insist upon a child's eliminating at a given time, for either he cannot or he will not, and since he will do as he pleases anyway, we should go along with him in this so that he will come to feel more friendly and coöperative. Eventually he will comply with our wishes regarding toileting and accept them as his own. Unlike the lunch procedure where the teacher regularly performs exact steps for the purpose of creating an atmosphere conducive to good eating, in the toileting situation there must be no set procedures for the teachers because the child's inner impulses must be the guide, and these do not follow any rule. Rather they must be detected and followed up by the teacher with appropriate action. The impulse to urinate or defecate cannot be produced by the child according to another person's suggestion. Therefore, in toileting the teacher tries to follow cues as given by the child and gradually accustom him to urinating at the intervals provided in the schedule.

While there need not be rigid rules, the following simple regulations are recommended as helpful. To have in the toilet at any time only as many children as there are toilet bowls and basins helps to cut down turmoil and tension. When outer wraps are left on a bench in the toilet as the children come in before lunch, and are picked up as they leave the toilet, confusion is reduced. Coats are hung up before the children go to the story group. If the coat hanging came first, the children might get sidetracked to the story group before they toilet, and they might not want to leave. Stationing one teacher at the toilet, one in the yard, and one in the room when toileting before lunch is better than having each teacher process a group from yard to toilet to story group. This latter method also has less flexibility for allowing children to come in first or last.

In the toilets undesirable play may take place during toileting periods and at other times. Children like to put their hands in the toilet bowl, even to drink the water in it, to shoot a stream of water from the faucet across the room, to put soap on the mirror, to put blocks or toys in the toilets, to flush their pants down, to urinate on

the floor, to scatter toilet paper, to drink out of the faucet, to pour sand ino the plumbing fixtures, and otherwise to make life difficult for the teachers. While all such behavior is natural, we can, of course, not tolerate it. Therefore, careful supervision of the toilets is needed at all times.

Washing the hands under running water instead of in a filled basin is more sanitary, not to mention the convenience and time saving. One long sink with four faucets means a saving of space, too. The face should be washed with wet hands rather than with a wash cloth and, if necessary, children or teachers can use a few sheets of toilet paper to remove facial dirt. Children have to be taught how to wipe hands and to be reminded to wipe them dry to prevent chapping. They should not be allowed to use the washroom for water play, for this slows down the processing of children through the washroom and is frustrating if permitted at some times and not at others. Water play should be dissociated from the toilet room, even if it may be associated in the child's mind with toileting processes.

The nursery school has a big responsibility for training the child to be continent with bladder and bowel control. Mechanically, this training is simple for it consists largely of taking the child to the toilet at regular intervals, but psychologically, it is more complicated than any other training we give. The child's physical and emotional states are reflected in the amount of control he displays. Because coming to nursery school is such a tremendous change in his life, his toilet habits will show change, and whether for better or worse will depend upon factors over which we have only limited control. We do not need to know his former habits because what he is developing at the time is our only concern. The carry-over from home training may be only partial, for the settings of home and school are completely different both physically and emotionally. We should expect some relapse. We can even expect two sets of behavior, one for home and one for the school. The severely trained or too early trained child is likely to go on a spree when he finds that incontinence is not punished in the school. Where such relapses cannot be sympathetically understood by the mother, they must be concealed from her. Unfortunately, the very child who is most likely to relapse is the one whose parent is least likely to understand the need for it. The problem the teacher faces

is one of letting the child revive the right to wet, and at the same time not to let him remain too long at this level of behavior. Use of mild, but not excessive, praise for continence, and avoidance of any form of condemnation for incontinence are the best methods. Wet pants should be changed with loving affection or in an offhand matter-of-fact way, but never with an air of annoyance or disapproval. This is not to say that the teacher acts as if she didn't care, for this would make the child feel without supervision. She must act to show that she wants him to be dry, but is willing to wait until he is ready for it. She assumes that he knows it is better to be dry, but natural for him to forget or to refuse.

Nagging the child by taking him to the toilet every half hour is not good after he has once learned what the toilet is for, except in the rare instance where this frequent attention is interpreted by the child as extra love and assumption of responsibility by the adult, and seems to make him feel better. When this is the case, the time periods should be rapidly extended until they are the regular length interval for the age group.

A child who suddenly becomes a wetter after having been dry must be emotionally upset. The wetting should be ignored and an effort made to find the underlying cause. The mere coming to school may be sufficient reason to cause a child to begin wetting again, and, if this is the case, it will clear up shortly when he feels at home in school. The four- or five-year-old who is a chronic daytime wetter is definitely a behavior problem. He needs all the help he can get to make his inner life more harmonious so that he can assume control of his elimination. Any punishment or shaming of a child who wets is like putting dirt into an open sore.

Only when the routines of eating, sleeping, toileting, dressing, and health inspection are flexible enough to provide for a wide range of individual development and fluctuation of daily feeling, can we say that they are sound and exemplify good nursery education.

Selected Reading

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13

Discipline

THE FIRST THING a new teacher in one of our schools wants to know is what kind of discipline do we believe in? Are we strict or lenient? Do we make the children mind, or are we so afraid of repressing them that we let them do what they want to? Do adults ever enforce their wills on the children with physical punishment, or do they just let children do many "bad" things while they seem to ignore them?

PHILOSOPHY OF DISCIPLINE

The answers to these questions are not simple, for discipline is not just a matter of dealing with incidents of misbehavior. Discipline is all that we can do and say to the children to get them to behave the way we want them to. Thus, the things we provide for them to do as well as everything that we do or refrain from doing are part of the discipline. It is not just a matter of how we act toward naughty children to make them behave. Good discipline, as we look at it, can best be described as the kind which carries a minimum of angry words and gestures against the children, and yet produces in them conforming behavior. We do not consider that good behavior is by itself proof of good discipline. The behavior must be satisfying for the child as well as satisfactory to the adults and the other children. This chapter attempts to describe what methods we believe are best for getting that all round satisfaction.

Problems of discipline manifest themselves in battles of wills between adults and children. In a world the institutions of which are geared primarily for adult use, children and young people are always at a disadvantage, and they naturally tend to protest against this state of affairs. And this protest often enough causes the adults to use extreme and cruel methods of discipline to make the children conform. If schools and homes were built to meet children's physical and emotional needs, the conflicts between the generations would be greatly reduced and many disciplinary problems would be eliminated. In the nursery school we work toward that goal, and before anything else we try to make the school a place in which conflicts between adults and children are reduced to a minimum.

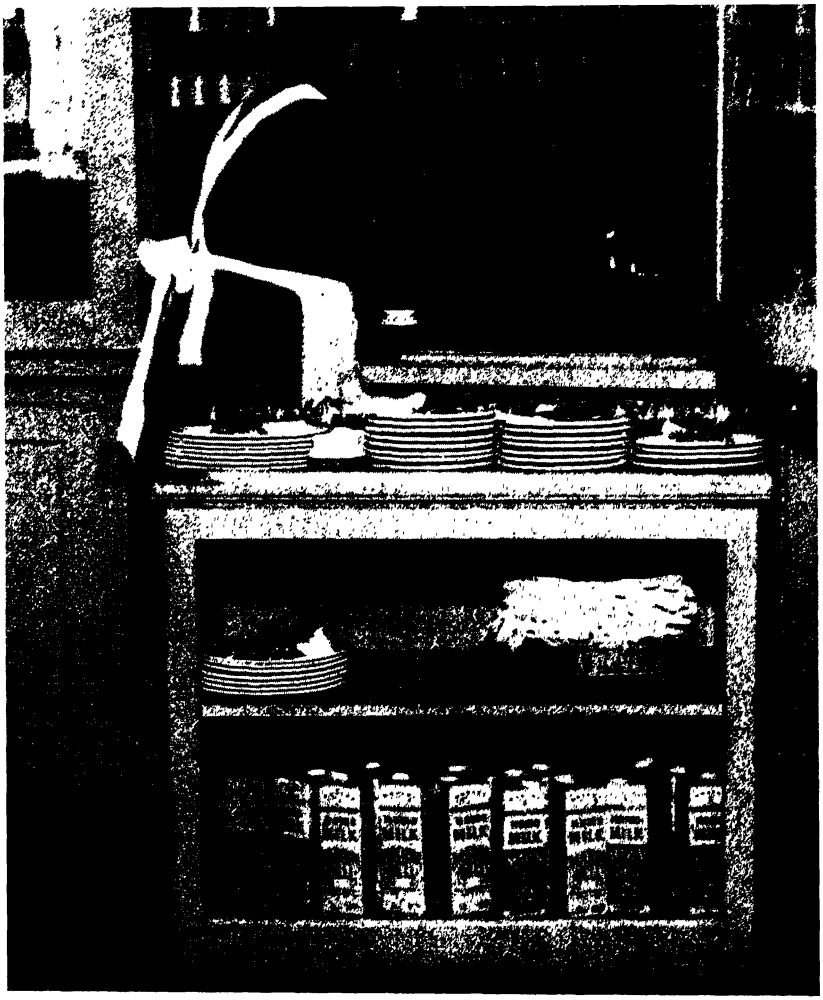
The nursery school is set up with physical equipment corresponding to the children's size and needs. Unlike home, in which there are so many things never to be touched, the school's prohibitions regarding the touching of things is largely a matter of when and how. For example, during sleeping or eating times clay, paint, or blocks can't be played with, but they can be freely enjoyed at other periods. The disciplines involved in the proper use of space, equipment, and materials are given in detail throughout this book, so nothing more need be said here about them. Here we want to make the point that good buildings, equipment, materials, organization, programming, and teaching techniques are of inestimable value in reducing disciplinary problems because they eliminate innumerable points of unnecessary friction between the children and the adults. For years an idea has prevailed among some educators that if the "one big happy family" attitude can be maintained by teachers the school will provide a good situation for learning even in spite of a poor physical set-up. For very talented teachers this may be true, but geniuses are too scarce to count on for a public school program. The rank and file of teachers need all the help they can get in the way of good physical surroundings. Therefore, the following discussion is predicated upon a good physical set-up. It also assumes good staffing and organization, not because they are easily achieved, but because good discipline is impossible without them.

We will also assume that the teachers have mastered the techniques given in Chapters 9, 10, 11, 12, and 15. The reason for making these assumptions is that buildings, equipment, materials,

staff, and organization, are all an essential part of the disciplinary situation, and must be up to standard if good discipline is to be achieved. For even where all these things are of a satisfactory nature, the question of how to handle the children, particularly the difficult ones, is still a major problem.

A fourth assumption needs more comment. It is this: that the purpose of nursery education is not only to help the child develop his own individual capacities in suitable fashion, but that it is also to socialize him — that is, to teach him to enjoy the company of others and to have others enjoy his company. Now, a school which aims only to keep children free from disease, well nourished, and as conforming as possible to some preconceived code of behavior has a very different approach to the question of discipline from one which sees itself as a place where the maximum possible of individual personality expression within the group is held to be the primarily desirable thing. One type seems to say, we will try to keep the child out of harm while he is away from home, where he really belongs; the other says, we will let the child have many new experiences in school, some of which he can never have at home, and we will make special efforts to encourage him to look at other children as friends and not as competitors in a struggle for a privileged position. It is the latter type of school that is presupposed throughout this book. In our present-day American society, which holds individual competition as a godly thing, it is difficult to convince a great many parents that our social idea is practical as a foundation for nursery education. Some parents even go so far as to ask us to teach their children to fight each other within limits which do not exclude physical blows. Although everybody knows that children can seriously injure one another if they are not prevented from doing so, the dominance of the competitive attitude in the world at large makes it difficult to keep it out of the nursery school. Competition is not good for the young child because he is too insecure and not enough developed to take it in the large doses to which the nursery school situation might expose him.

Our fifth assumption regarding discipline also needs some comment, for it deals with the source of authority for our disciplinary codes. We do not take over without questioning the authority which stems from traditions of state, church, and family. Authority for discipline in our schools does not come from any group or from



The housekeeper prepares for setting the tables for lunch. Plates are piled according to number needed at different tables; teaspoons, forks, and serving spoons are also counted. Bibs are used for two-year-olds. Homogenized milk, which needs no shaking before serving, is served from the sanitary containers. Note the height of the knob on the door into the kitchen.







Here you see forty-four children and five teachers having an orderly, pleasant lunch in a crowded wartime school.

he table correctly set for lunch as shown in the agram on page 272. All objects are compactly placed ose to the teacher and away from the children's sy reach. Note the tips of the chairs painted to tch the edge of the table as described on page 24.



Morning rest is for relaxation, not sleep.

Here you see thirty-five children sound asleep. It is hard for anyone to stay awake when all around him sleepiness is suggested by the behavior of others.



certain persons, but it is founded on modern psychology and on the findings of educators and sociologists. For example, we do not refrain from spanking the children just because some individual or group says we must not; rather we reject corporal punishment because we believe that the best thinking of our time shows it to be harmful.

Techniques of Discipline

Good teachers, working in well-equipped schools under good organization, toward a common educational goal as laid before them by modern psychology, have to use innumerable words and gestures to communicate with the children. It is these words and gestures and the feelings back of them, along with all the material things they are exposed to, that actually educate the children. The gestures used by adults to influence children are interpreted by them as expressions of either love or hate. Loving gestures include smiling, hugging, kissing, stroking, patting, carrying or holding the child, taking his hand, and other more subtle attitudes of body and voice. The hateful gestures include slapping, spanking, dragging, yanking, pinching, or shaking the child. Refusing to help him when he is in danger or despair, taking away food or toys from him, placing him in a closet, throwing cold water on his face, suffocating his crying, washing out his mouth with soap, forcing his mouth open for morning inspection, forcing food, locking him outside, and scolding him are also hateful gestures.

As for hateful words, adults can swear at children, call them derogatory names, speak ill of them in their presence, repeat nagging phrases, mimic to annoy, talk incessantly, speak in harsh or sarcastic tones which threaten corporal punishment, or deprivation of food, care, or protection. Adults can also say loving things to and about children, make soothing sounds, sing songs, tell stories, and otherwise use language to promote good feeling. Sometimes simply by keeping quiet they can avoid unpleasant encounters with the children and thus create an atmosphere of loving protection.

Our nursery school discipline aims to get teachers to decrease the use of hateful words and gestures, and to use the loving ones freely, because hateful words and gestures make a hateful atmosphere and increase behavior problems; use of loving words and gestures reduces behavior problems. Of course, words and gestures

which are not used sincerely may be recognized as such by the child; so we must say that the good teacher acts and speaks lovingly because she feels that way. When a teacher feels one way within herself while she acts and talks another way to the child, she may deceive herself, but she usually does not deceive the child. Therefore, good discipline must be founded upon the good feeling of teachers toward children as well as upon established ways of acting and talking. This applies to the children too; their inner state must also be in agreement with their outward behavior before we feel satisfied.

Now, no one can have loving or positive feelings all the time toward anyone or anything. All feeling sways between "for" and "against," and teachers' feelings for children inevitably swing, too. When we have teachers whose trend of feeling is loving, and when such feeling can be sustained for some length of time, then things tend to go smoothly. But when teachers' feelings swing too frequently, or too far, against the children, then troubles multiply. A teacher's good feeling for children is best judged by how well they, as a group, behave in her presence. If they are at ease, able to play freely, and are not too hostile toward one another, then we know the teacher has good feeling for them. If, however, they seem timid, cowed, or bored, or if they are too aggressive, then either the teacher's feeling is not good or her teaching techniques are weak, or both things are wrong. A teacher's good feeling for a group of children cannot be judged from her statements about it. Rather we must observe how she and the children actually get along together, and assure ourselves that the apparent harmony is not based upon too much repression.

Good discipline in the nursery school must be built on the child's almost unrestrained freedom to express both his positive and negative feelings. Of course the degree to which he may go in the expression of negative feelings is more limited. Negative feelings must come out, but the adult must also have the ability to direct them, as well as her own feelings, into proper channels. When the teacher permits only the good feelings of the children to be expressed, or when she brings out predominantly the bad ones, then her method of discipline is wrong, and we must suspect the true nature of her feelings. The effect of her words and gestures will give us the clue to the situation. A good teacher is one for whom

a group of children behave; a bad teacher is one for whom they misbehave. We must not forget, however, that there are certain children who behave for almost any teacher and, again, others who behave for practically none. It is these misbehavers that all teachers in a school find hard to handle that we call behavior problems. Of course, where the teaching staff is poor, children with behavior problems abound. But even where the teaching staff is good, there are usually some problem children. Because the behavior exhibited by these children varies so much, and because so much depends on the caliber of the adults in the school, it is hard to say when a certain specific behavior is a problem and when it is normal. In order to understand behavior it has to be considered in the light of its setting. However, regardless of our understanding, we must decide what the limits of behavior shall be in the school and what is to be done with the child when he goes beyond those limits. We must also decide the limits within which the teacher is allowed to express her feelings toward the children, and what methods she may employ to make them change their behavior.

Positive and Negative Discipline

All acts of discipline can be classified as either hateful, tending ultimately toward the use of corporal punishment; or as loving, tending toward the child's complete coöperation. Good discipline does not go constantly from one to the other, but leans consistently toward the loving or positive side and never makes the well-known, sudden right-about-face to the opposite approach. The discipline to which most children are subjected in their homes is one which can be summarized by the words "first coax, then threaten." Such a method is very confusing even to adults, but to children it is devastating. Eventually, all coaxing means to them only the preliminary to a threat, and they learn to ignore the coax and wait for the threat. The positive approach is most successful when it is carried through without any wavering. The "coax first, threaten second" method prevails in schools and homes today, and as a rule disturbed children are the ones who have never known positive discipline. Our most disturbed children are usually those upon whom the "threat only" method has been used.

Modern psychology shows that positive discipline is the only

kind that does not warp the personality of the child. Although by negative methods we can get children to conform to our demands, we also create new forms of misbehavior as a result. Thus, obedience or politeness can be obtained, but only at the expense of such reactions as nightmares, nervous tics, frequent illnesses, loss of appetite, or neurotic symptoms. Such negative reactions the adults do not consider acts of disobedience; however, for the child they are ways of getting even.

To state that all negative or hateful acts are to be taboo for teachers, and that instead they must use only loving acts to discipline children is not enough to get them to practice the positive approach. The teacher must be fully convinced of the value of this approach. In view of the fact that it is contrary to traditional pedagogical practices and the justification given for them, we will undertake a careful analysis of the pros and cons. But first we shall clear up possible confusion. To say there shall be no corporal punishment is not the same thing as to say that a teacher never uses physical force against the child. She does, and must use force, not only to prevent him from injuring himself and others, or from destroying equipment, but sometimes also to enforce the rules of the school. But the reason for which she employs force, and the way in which she does it, determines whether her use of force is legitimate or not. If she acts or feels hateful, she is using threatening force. If she does her best to make the child know that his acts, but not his person are disapproved, she can use force against him without necessarily making him feel that she is completely against him. He may resist and fight her restraining him, but he need not hate her as a person. In fact, we know that children usually like teachers who make them behave, if they do it in the proper fashion. Our motto is "condemn the deed, but not the doer." This can be done by the teacher without her having to repress her own true feeling: nothing superhuman is asked of her. But she must always communicate to the child that it is his behavior, not his total self, which meets with disapproval. At the times when the use of physical restraint is necessary, this is of utmost importance.

Let us now see what happens when negative discipline, either word or gesture, is used with young children. Let us clear up at once any misconception that words like "don't" or "no" or "you may not" are absolutely taboo. Such negative words may be used

if said with positive feeling. However, we all know that positive words are to be preferred. To get a child to walk instead of run across the room, it is wiser to say, "Walk to your locker," than "Don't run to your locker," because children tend to execute the suggestions received from words. To say "don't run" is to suggest running. To say "walk" is to suggest the act of walking, even though in the teacher's mind the idea is the same for both commands. Of course, it is perfectly appropriate to say, with conviction, "Now walk to your locker – remember – we are not supposed to run inside," if such a lengthy command is needed. All commands of "Don't do so and so" carry such powerful suggestion that we avoid them and, if possible, use alternative positive instructions instead. "Keep your coat on," not "Don't take your coat off," or "Come down off the fence," not "Don't climb the fence." But to say "Keep your coat on" in a nasty voice is negative discipline, whereas the words "Don't take your coat off" spoken in an agreeable voice is positive discipline. The point is that while the choice of words is important, the way in which they are used is more important in making the form of discipline positive or negative.

Incidentally, the editorial "we" so widely recommended for nursery school use is not a magic trick, but a manner of speech intended to convey an underlying attitude of common acceptance of school rules. Use of the expression "we do" or "we do not" regarding whatever it is that the teacher wants the child to do or to refrain from doing, carries the implication that the proper form of behavior may not be known to the child and that if he wants to be like the others, he will do what they do. Furthermore, when the teacher makes a simple statement, "we don't throw blocks," and the child stops throwing, he feels that he has done so of his own accord. If he does not stop throwing, the teacher has time to think what to do next because as yet she has not created a situation of open disobedience as she would by saying, "Don't throw the blocks," and so she can gather her forces before she makes a more aggressive move toward preventing the block throwing. Since instances in which children do what they should not occur over and over again in the course of a school day, it is well to have some response from the teacher that shows she is aware of the behavior, but one which does not make her too abrupt. This gentle reminder of "we don't"

is often enough to save the child's face and the teacher's, and encourages better relationships.

The reason why all types of negative discipline are undesirable is that they move in a direction which ultimately calls for blows. Thus, an angry or hateful word or gesture with which a command is given calls for a more severe one if the child does not obey. The resistant child soon finds himself ready to be spanked, perhaps by an unwilling adult who has maneuvered herself into this position, because the negative approach is one which carries the threat of worse to come unless the child obeys. On the other hand, the child who conforms readily to the mildest negative discipline is often the one who manifests neurotic difficulties such as poor appetite, poor sleeping, nervous tics, withdrawn social attitude, or inability to talk or learn. Thus he gives evidence that living on the safe side of adults takes its toll. Frequently the children who have never been spanked or severely punished and are reported by their parents to be obedient are the ones who have never dared to resist openly even the first measures of negative discipline, and therefore were never subjected to stronger ones. Such children very often find an outlet for their resistance in any number of neurotic symptoms.

The child who holds his ground until fairly severe methods of negative discipline are used against him, is one who has more will power, and he is likely to become more aggressive. He is constantly probing to find out how far he can go and how much the adult will stand before the battle is settled by another display of physical force. Our largest number of problem children come from homes where discipline is too severe, or vacillates back and forth between the positive and negative forms. The child who is not given enough time for his response to mild acts of negative discipline, and who is immediately assaulted by the adult with slaps or blows, is the one who becomes our greatest difficulty in nursery school — and who is the potential delinquent.

Legally, parents are free to carry out acts of negative discipline to a point short of killing their children. Newspapers actually record enough instances where they have not stopped at the fatal point. But teachers, in some instances by law, and certainly by general public opinion, are prohibited from going to the extreme of corporal punishment, though they are permitted many insidious

substitute methods which in practice amount to the same thing. Unfortunately, negative discipline prevails throughout our whole educational system. At its base is the threat of pain and the fear aroused by the threat of pain. It is expressed by the church in the doctrine of hell, and by the state through the infliction of capital punishment. In the home it is practiced by inflicting pain, depriving of love or privilege, and by various methods which lower the child's self-respect. If our discipline in the nursery school followed these patterns, we should contribute further to the ills of society. Instead, we must help the parents see that our positive form of discipline is a better solution to their problems, too.

At this point it is usually argued that for some cases only corporal punishment works. The truth is that very few adults know how to get children to behave without using negative discipline, and that the child who has been conditioned to respond only to such discipline must be reëducated before he will respond to positive discipline. The parent who says, "I don't know what to do except to spank him," is telling the truth — she doesn't know. And to say, "He won't mind unless he is spanked" should not be taken as an unchangeable characteristic of personality, since the consistent application of a form of discipline which is completely positive and free from all kinds of threats would prove otherwise. There are very many children who do not mind well and who are spanked at home, but who are coöperative in the nursery school where spanking is unknown. Thus the argument that spanking is necessary can acquire a certain practical validity, but it remains fundamentally wrong. And it cannot be proved by the usual naïve reference to "cases" since the behavior of children who have been conditioned by nothing but negative discipline is spurious evidence.

Extent of Discipline in the Nursery School

No one has ever approved of discipline which goes the limit in the nursery school; our problem is, then, how far shall we go? The answer is that we try not to go at all in the negative direction; in our effort to make the child conform we try to avoid all negative or hostile acts against him. Since we are not only forbidden, but also have no desire to go eventually to extremes in order to win a point, we try not to start any action at all in that direction. Children

can be very stubborn, and teachers feel defeated when they cannot carry out their threats and win out over the child. Furthermore, when teachers make threats and do not carry them out, children lose respect for the teacher's authority. Therefore, as a matter of plain common sense — and apart from the more important psychological reasons — it is best not to make any threats which cannot be seen through to the end. Punishment, and threat of punishment, have no place in the nursery school. With a really stubborn child, no teacher is actually prepared to carry out a threat severe enough to overcome his resistance. And while there are children who conform at the mere threat of punishment, fortunately, most children are not so easily intimidated.

Punishment we define as some form of suffering deliberately inflicted by the adult upon the child. Of course, we must not look upon all forcible restricting of the child's behavior as punishment in this sense. An adult may use physical force to remove a child from a dangerous place, or to restrain him from hurting others or from destroying property, and by so doing may cause him frustration, pain, or embarrassment. This is not punishment, even though the child suffers. Such suffering is the natural consequence of the child's intolerable behavior — intolerable because it is forbidden in the given situation, not because it is unnatural or bad behavior *per se*. Punishment is suffering inflicted arbitrarily after a misdeed with the intention of trying to deter the child from such conduct in the future. Punishment, as commonly inflicted, has little if any connection with the misdeed which brought it on, and it carries a "tit for tat" quality which does not focus the child's attention on the nature of the misdeed and the unpleasant consequences thereof. Instead it has a hostile "trying to get even" character that generates counter-hostility.

While we can say that we have no punishment in nursery school, we certainly do not mean that children should be allowed to do as they please. Restrictions must be set up, and the children must be taught to conform. Thus, a child who keeps throwing blocks may be removed from the block area and directed to some other activity. He may protest and the teacher may insist, but this is not punishment within our definition. If, however, she makes him sit on a chair in the corner because he threw blocks, then she is meting out punishment. In the one case, she restricted activity on a reasonable,

non-vindictive basis to protect the rights of others. In the other case, she meant to induce suffering as the consequence of an unsocial act. While the child may get angry at both kinds of treatment, the first one will be much more acceptable to him as reasonable conduct on the part of an adult.

If we do not use punishment, then we cannot use rewards, for rewards are only the reverse of punishment. When a reward is used as a bribe, it is again a tit-for-tat arrangement which says "you do something for me and I'll do something for you." While children can make such bargains, adults are supposed to give children what they deserve without any other reward than that of having the satisfaction that they have done the right thing, and, possibly, receiving the child's love. In children we try to develop the capacity to feel this same kind of inner satisfaction. When a reward is a logical outcome of the child's act, there is no personal bargaining element in the situation. Thus, rewards for the nursery school children are those of being allowed to use all materials and equipment, and of having the teachers smile at them. We never give things or permit an activity because a child has been good; we give and permit because that is what we are supposed to do, and because the child is entitled to enjoy the school's activities so long as he plays by the rules.

Theory of Nursery School Discipline

By now the reader is probably wondering how we induce good behavior in the school if we eschew not only the use of rewards and punishments, but also all the other acts of negative discipline. The first part of our answer is that we try to establish an atmosphere in which adults and children feel at their best and therefore behave at their best. We have learned that some things which teachers say and do build good atmosphere, other things destroy it. To a great extent the atmosphere set by the group determines the individual's behavior. The children can all be little angels or little devils, but if the majority can be kept reasonably human, the chronic angels get somewhat contaminated, the chronic devils lose a few horns, and life can be quite agreeable. We shall first discuss how to create the kind of atmosphere which makes the average child conform, then, how to deal with problems of discipline common to all children, and finally, how to handle certain problem children.

Problems of Misbehavior

We are all familiar with the fact that much of the behavior of young children is chaotic, aimless, and unconscious, and seems to spring from unknown inner urges. Perhaps we might best characterize the young child's energy as undifferentiated and self-centered. Teachers must guide that energy into channels which are acceptable to the adults in the child's environment and to society in general. Education, and particularly nursery education, consists of the conscious effort on the part of the adults to do this and at the same time develop sound character and personality in the child. The old-fashioned concept of discipline described the child's behavior as either good or bad, and recommended specific treatment for punishing the bad and rewarding the good. Modern pedagogy looks upon all child behavior as good or bad only in terms of two concepts. One of these is the developmental concept of age level, according to which certain behavior must be considered normal and desirable for one age, while the same behavior may be abnormal and undesirable at a higher age. For example, bed-wetting is proper at the age of one year, less so at the age of four or five years, and definitely improper at ten. The other concept is that of psychodynamics, according to which behavior must be understood and evaluated in terms of the dynamics of the child's relation to his environment and to other persons. To illustrate, if a child is being hurt or frustrated by someone, it is only natural for him to try to hit back or get even.

Now, if behavior must be viewed relatively, according to the child's developmental status, and according to the dynamics of his emotional situation, we cannot say that any given act of behavior is good or bad *per se*. Therefore, we cannot discuss the problems of misbehavior by referring to specific isolated acts; instead, we must deal with developmental and dynamic categories of misbehavior. The four categories which follow will serve our purposes: aggressive, regressive, evasive, and fixated behavior. The terms are meant descriptively, not genetically. By aggressive behavior we mean an attacking or outgoing behavior; by regressive behavior we mean that which is characteristic of a former age level; by evasive behavior we mean the tendency to get around the issue or postpone it; and by fixated behavior we mean the refusal to move in any

direction. All children show behavior which can be characterized as aggressive, regressive, evasive, or fixated. By the time children reach the nursery school at the age of two, their reaction patterns are already well established, and each is a definite personality.

Aggression. Aggressive behavior can be constructive or destructive. The aim of nursery school education is to encourage the constructive forms of aggression so that the children evidence normal zest for life and activities; to prevent destructive aggression that adversely affects group life; and to redirect destructive aggressions into healthy activities. The curriculum, the equipment, and the materials of the nursery schools are designed to allow healthy expression of aggression. The elimination of certain unsuitable materials, such as abound in the home, is a means of preventing unhealthy or destructive aggression. The teachers must know and the children must be taught which of their aggressive acts are considered constructive and which are considered destructive. Yet we must face the fact that, no matter how much opportunity we give the children for being constructively aggressive, there is always much destructive aggression to cope with. Let us turn, then, to the problem of the child who is destructively aggressive.

What happens to the child whose destructive aggressive acts are met by the teacher with negative discipline? The hateful words or gestures used in negative discipline are all expressions of destructive counteraggression against the child for his misbehavior. When destructive counteraggression is used against the normal child, he usually becomes even more aggressive, and this situation can easily lead to an impasse. A fight between an adult and a child, though sometimes inevitable, is not a desirable education situation. The baby who gets mad at his mother, slaps her face, and receives in return a slap on his hand, will usually slap again at the mother and harder, causing her to return a stronger slap. Eventually, the mother will win by reason of the fact that she is stronger. However, this kind of battle is not desirable even if the mother succeeds in teaching her child not to slap her, for the negative feeling that was aroused in the child will have then to come out some other way. The altered behavior may be even more distressing, for the aggressive impulses of the child are intensified. But very often when a child's destructive aggressive behavior is habitually met by the adults with negative discipline in the form of counteraggression, his aggressiveness only becomes greater.

Regression. However, if the child is denied the possibility of expressing aggressiveness, his behavior pattern may change. The easiest change is to shift from aggressive to regressive behavior. This is illustrated by the child who, normally continent in nursery school, will wet his pants if he has encounters with children or teachers of an aggressive, counteraggressive nature, especially when he has been on the losing side. Most of what we think of as babyish behavior can be called regressive behavior. Obviously, it is of the utmost importance for teachers to know when so-called babyish behavior is simply an expression of normal development and when it must be considered as regressive. Every age brings its satisfactions and its conflicts; the tendency of all human beings is to cling to the known satisfactions of the age just passed and to avoid facing the conflicts of the one ahead. Regressive behavior is manifest at all ages, but plays a very large part in the nursery school because the conflicts faced in the second year of life are extremely painful, and quite generally not sympathetically understood by adults. To suck in order to obtain food, and to eliminate freely upon impulse is normal behavior for small babies. And nature has seen to it that the exercise of these functions is accompanied by pleasurable sensations as well as a general feeling of well-being. In the second year of life, however, the comforting acts serving these vital functions must be replaced by new ones centering around eating with implements and eliminating at proper times and places. These are difficult steps in the child's development, and he will tend to revert or regress to sucking or wetting as his old familiar forms of getting satisfaction when he is frustrated, because he has not been successful in establishing the new ones. Negative discipline contributes to regressive behavior, and this could be readily observed by those who use it if the emotional state which goes with the practice of negative discipline did not prevent them from making objective observations.

Evasion. When the regressive behavior to which a child resorts is met by the destructive counteraggression of the adults, the child is told that he can't be babyish and get adult approval. If he has already been told that he can't be naughty, that is, aggressive; then he may develop evasive behavior as a means of getting around the situation. Evasive behavior can be dawdling, loss of appetite, lying, feigning illness, or other manifestations, all of which are obviously

undesirable, especially when they develop into a habitual pattern. Evasive children are hard to reach even at the nursery school age, but evasive response patterns established in early childhood may be the foundation for a later neurosis.

Fixation. If the child's aggressions, regressions and evasions are not acceptable to the adults, he is then really up against it, for he can't be naughty, babyish, or "smart." What is left to him then is either to explode or to subside. Thus a child whose normal destructive aggression is frustrated and who is unable to find an outlet in counteraggressive, regressive, or evasive acts, may become so stupid, stubborn, compulsive, or so hyperactive and unreasonable that at age five he may give the appearance of being a good candidate for the jail or madhouse. In the one case, his behavior will become fixated; in the other, he reverts to aggressive behavior.

With this brief exposition of the four categories according to which misbehavior can be classified, we have reached a point where we can make the statement that persons who guide children must be able to some extent to judge correctly the behavior of children in order to deal wisely with it. In Chapter 13 we shall discuss in more detail the specific acts of misbehavior, indicating which type they represent and how the teacher should respond to the various types. We shall also see how, in all cases, negative discipline tends to increase the undesirable behavior.

Like the child, the teacher can respond to any behavior situation by aggression, constructive or destructive, by regression, evasion, or fixation. The good teacher is the one who is constructively aggressive and uses little, if any, destructive aggression. If she is ever evasive, her evasive behavior is not an abdicating of responsibility, but a way of promoting harmony. Regressive behavior on her part is rarely permitted — only when she is confronted with problems she cannot master and when she has a temporary feeling of helplessness. A tendency toward fixated behavior on the part of a teacher disqualifies her for nursery school teaching.

Goal of Nursery School Discipline

Normal behavior for all ages consists of meeting situations and personal relationships with properly balanced behavior responses. Guidance of children consists in helping them to acquire healthy,

balanced ways of responding. But children must also learn to choose between right and wrong. The capacity to make such decisions is based upon the development of what is popularly called conscience. The conscience is part of what Freud has termed the superego. When a child is neither too worried nor too indifferent in deciding what is right or wrong, we say that he has a superego that is neither too severe or too lax. The problem faced by educators is to help the child establish a superego that is normal, not too exacting and not too mild. An individual's superego is usually well formed by the age of five or six, and often does not develop any more after that time. Some neuroses are considered to be the result of the individual's unconscious attempt to maintain a child's superego in his adult life.

We are all familiar with the fact that the newborn baby has no conscience and is therefore not held responsible for his actions. The mother who tries to get her year-old baby to share his toys so that he will not be selfish when he grows up, has no insight into the developmental aspect of behavior, and she is forcing the child as much as if she tried to make him walk at the age of three months. During the first years of life the parents' supervision and guidance must substitute for and support the child's superego. As the child develops his own superego, he tends to model it on the idea he has of his parents and teachers; he wants to be like them and thereby to please them. When the parents are too severe and use too much negative discipline, the child acquires a superego which demands too much of himself, and not only may his behavior then become troublesome, evasive, or strange, but he may also develop a true neurosis. Therefore, the object of nursery school discipline must be to help the child develop a superego with which he and others can live harmoniously. To this end it is essential that the school provide suitable outlets for constructive aggression and prevent as far as possible the establishment of unhealthy regressions, evasions, or fixations.

The child develops a superego when he is able to say to himself, in the absence of adults, that he must or must not do certain things. In the early phases of its development the superego is more or less weak and ineffectual. When the child fails to follow the directions of his superego, and when he is then punished, scolded, or humiliated, he loses confidence in himself and his ability to achieve the

higher level of conduct expected of him. If, however, the adult is consistent in making a distinction between the undesirable behavior, of which he disapproves, and the person of the child, who does not lose his love, then the child does not get the pernicious idea that he is just the sum total of his bad acts. Instead, he can learn that his bad acts are only a small part of what he does, and that he can make, without the danger of losing his feeling of personal identity, the changes of behavior for which the adult has asked. We must always be careful not to throw out the baby with the bathwater. All punishment and negative discipline does this; positive discipline avoids this risk. One cannot "condemn the deed, but not the doer," except by positive means. Bernard Shaw puts it this way: "Never spank a child except in anger." In other words, adults may and will lose their self-control, but the resulting behavior cannot be considered good pedagogy.

Characteristics of Good Discipline

How strict and how lenient discipline should be, is a question which we have to ask and answer constantly. Compared with a norm or an average, every person leans either to the strict or to the lenient side, and that will be reflected in the discipline he uses. Sometimes when a person suffers too much from the demanding inner voice of the superego, he will repudiate it by encouraging others to commit acts of aggression which he himself would be afraid to perform. A case in point is the typical ultra-progressive school with that over-lenient discipline which is agreeable to adults who have too severe a superego. The degree of strictness or leniency of the discipline will also depend upon whether the adults want the children to become like themselves, or more free and unrepressed, or more restrained and self-controlled. In order to develop healthy superegos, children must be in the company of adults who are neither too strict nor too lenient, and not too unstable. If adults alternate between emotionality and impersonality, leniency and severity, the child will likewise become unstable. Children are by nature unstable, and they need a stable outside authority to develop a steady inner voice of conscience.

A child cannot develop a steady, tolerant superego if he is subjected to heavy alternating doses of love and hate. He needs a maxi-

mum of unselfish love from adults, the smallest possible minimum of rejection. Adults may dislike certain aspects of his behavior, but they must not express hatred toward his person, for all hateful acts are experienced by the child as assaults upon his self. If he is to rely on his own conscience, to develop a sound character and to become a tolerant individual, he must be allowed to like himself and to remain at harmony with himself. Much of children's misbehavior is expression of natural impulses that must come out, and children simply cannot help doing many things that they shouldn't. When the child is punished, he feels guilty. The child hates himself or the punisher, or both, and this makes him feel more guilty. When one feels guilty, one feels anxious. This anxious brooding of the child can take two forms: "Why was I so bad? I must be a bad person"; or "Why was she so mean to me? She is a bad person." In either case, the anxious tension can be tolerated only so long; finally the child must do something to relieve it. He is very unlikely to do anything rational or constructive, or anything agreeable to everyone. In order to restore his inner emotional balance, he will be bad again — either to satisfy his guilt feeling so that he really has something to feel guilty about, or in his attempt to get even with the punisher. In both cases the child's behavior is caught in a vicious circle.

A child who is trying to get even can be so violently destructive that the adults become alarmed and react violently in return. However infrequent such experiences are, they will arouse considerable anxiety on both sides. But even when no full-scale battle of wills ensues, and no matter how lovingly or positively we discipline children, there is always some anxiety generated in the child when he is frustrated. Even mild frustrating acts that an adult executes without actually withdrawing his love from the child for a single moment can be interpreted, or rather misinterpreted, by the child as threats of loss of love.

It may well be that the child's fear of losing the love of his mother and other adults plays an important, possibly even an indispensable, rôle in causing him to yield to the demands of the adults. Yet, this does not mean that we should plan deliberately to induce this kind of fear in the child. The opposite is true. Just because it is inevitable that the child should develop this fear, we should do nothing to support it. For the healthy effect which the fear of loss of love

may have, the smallest dose is more than enough. Therefore, all our conscious efforts should be directed toward lessening that fear as much as possible. In other words, we ought to use positive discipline persistently.

The acts of negative discipline are experienced by the child not only as frustrations but also as threats that make him afraid of further acts of punishment. We can certainly say that negative discipline arouses anxiety on a scale which is altogether unhealthy and does not aid in bringing up undisturbed children. The anxiety which negative discipline engenders must be relieved somehow. In many cases the child finds an outlet only in new acts of destructive aggression. Aggression, guilt, anxiety and then more aggression eventually make a vicious circle. The child can also relieve his anxiety by repressive, evasive, or fixative behavior patterns or combinations of them which are all equally undesirable. A form of discipline, the main characteristic of which is to create guilt and anxiety, will prevent behavior excesses of any type only at the expense of causing emotional disturbances and neurotic symptoms. Only positive discipline will prevent the feelings of guilt and anxiety from becoming too intense, and it will keep the atmosphere free for a response that is not loaded with emotional dynamite. Positive discipline makes it possible for the child to be reasonable. And when we say that a child can be reasoned with, we mean he is able to listen because he is not overloaded with guilt and anxiety.

There are some people who say that since children cannot be prevented from feeling guilty for their misdoings, a quick spanking is a healthy thing because it relieves their guilt feeling. All children, no matter with how much love and consistency they are disciplined, have feelings of guilt and anxiety. It is impossible to bring up a child in whom no such feelings have been generated unless the child is feeble-minded. It is just because of this that we must do all we can to prevent damaging amounts of these emotions from being developed. A spanking is proof to the child that his guilt feeling is well founded, and for this reason it offers only temporary relief. His wrongdoing is still on the record, for guilt can only be absolved; it cannot be washed away by means of punishments. Adults have the responsibility of relieving the children in their care of their guilt insofar as they can. They can do this only by showing love and forgiveness — by condemning the deed but not the doer. While

the child will not always realize that it is his deed and not himself which is under indictment, he will gradually learn to make this distinction — an important one for him to learn. When we face the fact that immaturity, ignorance, illness, inner conflicts, and outer difficulties make the children be naughty and subsequently feel more or less guilty all the time, we can see how essential it is for adults to make every effort to use a form of discipline which reduces children's guilt feelings to a minimum.

When a child experiences only negative discipline, he cannot possibly develop a healthy personality. When he gets both negative and positive discipline, he will come through more easily; but when positive discipline is used, then the air is cleared for healthy development. The nursery school must strive to create an atmosphere as free as possible from guilt and anxiety by using positive discipline consistently. This responsibility which the nursery school assumes is far greater than that of any other school because the time from birth to six years of age is the phase of life when the character and personality of the child are taking their definite form.

This brings us to the question, what about the child who must learn to respond to two systems of discipline, positive at school, negative at home? The answer is that he has a tough time when he comes home from school and tries to meet the familial discipline with his counteraggression, after he has enjoyed the friendlier régime at school. Still, he is better off — surely, no one wants a child to get a double dose of poison just to see what his immunity is. The nursery school cannot have the punitive type of home discipline, and the child benefits from escaping it, at least for part of the time. Furthermore, the child's first essay into the larger world should be into a benign world if he is to become a socialized democratic being. Even when children seem to prefer school life to home life, we need have no fear that the school will make them too dissatisfied with home life, for love of home and parents springs from a deep biological well which sustains the family ties.

Another question that can be raised is: are we not being too gentle with little children who have to grow up into a harsh world? In principle the answer is the same as for the question: why must we give little babies only sterile food since they won't be able to have it all their lives? Many babies would not survive if exposed to all the germs. The same is true for punishment. The child who

has had only kindly, sound discipline until the age of six or seven can take most of the beatings he is due to receive as he grows up.

Maintaining Good Discipline

At this point the reader is perhaps willing to agree that discipline should be benevolent, but is wondering whether such an approach is as practicable as it is desirable. All this discussion would, of course, become futile if it were not possible to get teachers to carry out the program of positive discipline. The answer is that success depends upon the fulfillment of certain conditions.

First, the teachers and the administration must agree in their belief that positive discipline is the only proper one for the nursery school. When teachers are censured by their supervisors or principals for refusing to employ negative discipline, they are at a great disadvantage. A more or less general consensus allows two- and three-year-olds the benefit of doubt regarding harsh treatment, but four- and five-year-olds are usually not given the protection of that doubt. It is the task of the nursery school to prove that all preschool ages are not so different when it comes to anxiety and its consequences. If the nursery school can demonstrate this, it stands ready to influence all education in a profound and far-reaching manner.

A second condition for making possible the consistent application of positive discipline is the presence only of teachers who love children in a wholesome way. It is common knowledge that some women like children and get along with them better than others do. For everybody's sake, society should see that it is such women who become the teachers of our youngest children. Nursery school teachers should be selected for training only after a trial period, and only after an evaluation of the applicants' influence upon and reaction to children has been made by a competent psychological observer. This rule protects the children and prevents many teachers from failing in a line of work for which they are trained, but for which they were never really suited. It would not be difficult for any teacher-training institution to arrange such a trial period. In most cases, a two weeks' period would be adequate.

A third condition for good nursery school discipline is a teaching staff which is well informed about age level development and

about the dynamics of behavior. When a good teacher gets into difficulties with discipline, in most cases her problem is that she has not had enough experience or has not acquired sufficient knowledge in these two fields.

A fourth condition is that pathologically (that is, severely neurotic) aggressive children, or ones who need treatment, must not be admitted to nursery school, for they are not ready for the exclusive use of positive discipline.

Sympathetic supervisors and warm-hearted teachers who are intellectually informed and emotionally balanced will need well-equipped schools, good organization, technical skills, and common aims to make the practice of positive discipline a success. While it is difficult to achieve all these conditions, we can say that a high degree of achievement has been demonstrated in individual schools. Such schools exhibit positive discipline at its best. However, in this respect no school ever had or ever will have a perfect situation. Teachers are humanly incapable of always behaving in positive ways no matter how hard they struggle to do so. There will be times when they behave with spontaneous negative feelings, words, and gestures. That raises the question: is it not just this small proportion of negative behavior on the part of the teacher which is really what makes children behave? In other words, when the real showdown comes, is not the negative attitude an absolute necessity? The reason why these questions are not to be answered in the affirmative has already been given: the fear of loss of love may be a vitally important motive for the child. But this fear will be aroused in the child under any circumstances. The adults do not have to contribute to it by the use of negative discipline, for even the most understanding form of positive discipline contains enough frustrating elements from the child's point of view. From this very reasoning there follows, on the other hand, that an occasional slip into negative discipline, while it cannot be justified, need not always have serious consequences.

Now no adult can always prevent negative feelings toward children from welling up within, but nursery schools can establish an environment which greatly reduces the causes for hostile feelings. They can also select teachers who, by nature, respond to children's normal behavior with good feelings. Nursery schools can train teachers to evaluate instead of retaliate and thus prevent further

negative behavior. The very process of stopping to think what the child's annoying act means to him, in terms of his age and his emotional state, will alter the teacher's natural anger at his behavior. The capacity of the teacher to inhibit the expression of her initial response and to give one which serves educational values of a situation is an important part of what we call maturity. Teachers must be allowed to have negative feelings, but they cannot be allowed to express themselves fully. Unlike children, teachers have to do their own controlling of their own behavior. Teachers with healthy superegos do not find the well-conducted nursery school too much of a strain, for they have little struggle to control their hostile affects and enjoy the free expression of their friendly feelings.

Selected Reading

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Adler tries to prove his theory regarding the power motive in children. Historically interesting, but not very helpful to the teacher because Adler forces all cases to fit his doctrine.

Aichhorn, August, *Wayward Youth.* New York, Viking Press, 1935.
This is a famous book by the psychoanalyst who was the first to apply psychoanalysis to the disturbances of delinquent adolescents and who developed a modified technique for this purpose. The book has much to offer teachers. The futility of meeting negative aggression in children with negative aggression is especially well documented.

Blow, Susan, *Symbolic Education.* New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1910.
This is a much less emotional book than her *Letter to a Mother.* The abstract meanings given by adults to children's play are well brought out here. It was this whole idealogical approach that was challenged by the development of the nursery school approach to play.

Dreikurs, Rudolph, *The Challenge of Parenthood.* New York, Duell, Sloan, and Pearce, 1948.
The latest and by far the best book on how to handle children. A "must" book for teachers, who can very highly recommend it to parents.

Harms, Ernest, *Handbook of Child Guidance.* New York City Child Care Publications, 1947.

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James, William, *Talks to Teachers on Psychology.* New York, Henry Holt, 1914.

This great psychologist has ideas which can be applied by all teachers.

Moodie, William, M.D., *Doctor and the Difficult Child.* New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1940.

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Perry, Ruth Davis, *Children Need Adults.* New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943.

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Sayles, Mary B., and Howard W. Nudd, *Problem Child in School.* New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1929.

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Waring, Ethel B., and Marguerite Wilker, *Behavior of Young Children.* New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929.

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Washburn, Ruth W., *Children Have Their Reasons.* New York, The Appleton-Century Company, 1942.

An account of how things look from the child's point of view. An emotional appreciation on the part of an intuitive person who understands children by identifying with them.

Watson, John B., *Psychological Care of Infant and Child.* New York, W. W. Norton and Company, 1928.

Read this to find out how mothers were misled by the great exponent of behaviorism.

Weill, Blanche C., *Through Children's Eyes.* New York, Island Workshop Press, 1940.

An emotional, easy-to-read plea for children that is founded on personal understanding of children, but not on an understanding of the complex nature of emotional life.

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A readable little book by one of the first American psychiatrists to be sympathetic to the Freudian viewpoint. Another "outdated" book so far as current bibliographies are concerned, but a book that still has much to say to teachers today.

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Behavior Problems

Teaching Techniques

Before the teacher can learn how to handle specific behavior situations, she must acquire a certain general teaching technique. Teaching techniques, we define as all the ways in which teachers handle themselves in getting certain behavior from the children and in dealing with behavior problems. For example, a friendly morning greeting to each child is one of the techniques a teacher uses to start the day off right. Whether or not she actually feels glad to see every parent and every child every morning, a professional teacher automatically speaks a friendly greeting. Teaching techniques are not, however, just a bag of tricks which the teacher draws upon regardless of feeling. They are methods used to control posture, gesture, speech, tones of voice, and facial expressions in order to have an effect on other people. Techniques are founded on good feeling, and they are used to express it. They are also used to cover up bad feelings at certain times. A teacher's feelings must not always be communicated to the children, though they can be fully admitted to herself. To illustrate, a teacher might see a child in a dangerous spot and be frightened, but to show her fright might cause the child to move suddenly and get hurt, whereas to speak to the child in a quiet tone of voice and tell him what to do is to enable him to move safely out of danger. In such a situation, the teacher knows that her feelings, though legitimate, must not be expressed to the child, and she speaks in a tone of voice that reflects her technical skill. Covering up negative feelings toward children

can only be successfully done in a minor, incidental way in situations where the teacher's negative feeling quickly changes. If a continued or deep ill-feeling on the part of the teacher exists, the children will see through her attempt to cover it up, because she will be unable to do a convincing job. Good cover-up work means acting as a mature person, but not a hypocritical one.

It is important that the teacher be aware of her feelings as far as possible, for when she recognizes them, she can do a better job of controlling them than when she tries to pretend to herself that she is feeling otherwise. Certain techniques of speech and gesture are her ready tools for conveying appropriate feelings, and for saving the children from the brunt of her negative ones when she feels annoyed or angry. If the deed and not the doer is to be condemned, then ways must be found for making this clear to the children. It may be hard to maintain a positive attitude toward a child while disapproving of his behavior, but there are simple techniques, such as making a gesture of affection at the same time as words of disapproval regarding the deed are spoken, that help to do just this. Patting a child on the shoulder while you tell him for the nth time not to throw the blocks is one such technique.

Every teaching technique essentially is a posture, a gesture, a facial expression, a verbalization, or a combination of any of these, which conveys some idea to the child. Thus the teacher and her techniques are the sum total of what she appears to be to the child, rather than what she thinks she is. If she frowns because her stomach aches, the child will not know the reason but will think her expression has something to do with him. Therefore, the first thing a teacher must learn is to control her appearance and her expressions.

No matter what she says or how she says it, along with her speech go posture, gestures, and facial expressions, which the child also takes in. This is something which most adults forget, because adults respond primarily to speech, whereas nursery school children are only in the process of learning to do this. So, to repeat, the first thing a teacher must learn is how to coördinate the total appearance of her personality as it affects the children. Much of this has to do with her habitual way of acting and speaking, which can be modified only by conscious effort and practice. Experience has shown us that children respond more favorably to certain postures, ges-

tures and tones of voice. A person who just naturally uses the right words, tones, and gestures, we call a natural-born teacher.

The assets of the good teacher include both her natural and acquired qualities. First of all, her posture is always attractive. It shows good muscle tone, attentiveness, sense of responsibility, feeling of inner assurance, and an air appropriate to the occasion. She is not sitting when she should be standing, nor leaning against the fence when she should be moving about. Her posture gives the impression of her being interested in what goes on and of her ability to move quickly if necessary. She never sits on the floor, never supports her head with an arm resting on a support, and she does not slump down while either walking or sitting. She does not stand rigidly or indifferently, and she knows when to bend and when to squat down to the child's level.

The movements or gestures of the good teacher are deliberate but not too slow, spontaneous but not uncontrolled, precise but not pedantic, dignified but not self-conscious, and they convey affection and approval rather than annoyance and disapproval. For disapproval, words alone should be used. When quick or violent gestures must be used to save a child from danger or from doing damage, they should contain the quality of affection rather than of resentment. There is no place for hostile gestures from teachers in nursery school. Clapping of hands to get quiet in the room, pointing a finger at a child, or throwing up the hands in despair are unsuitable gestures, and give the child a feeling that the teacher is either angry or at her wits' end — neither of which is a good idea to give him.

Facial expressions are not too difficult to control if the teacher can remember to do so. The use the teacher can make of her facial expressions is one of her most valuable techniques. She has to learn to look pleasant, to smile, to seem assured that all is well. The children take their cue from her facial expression as to whether they feel that the school situation is under control. The smiles of teachers and the twinkles in their eyes go far toward relieving children's anxieties. The serious look of a teacher can be interpreted as disapproval when in reality it is only expressing her concentration. Many an insecure teacher has this look and children sense her insecurity, so she must learn to smile and to act friendly until this becomes automatic. If the teacher keeps her mind on the school situation, her general mien will carry conviction.

Without a basis of good feeling for the children, no amount of smiling has any value, for children are intuitive and see through most pretenses. Teachers who do not like children's natural behavior may be able to master the techniques described here, but they will not become good teachers, for back of any technique must be a basic love for children. As we have said already, a teacher must be judged not by what she says or knows, but by what responses she elicits from the children.

Through posture, gestures, facial expressions, and speech all teaching skill is translated into practice. Back of techniques are intellectual concepts and emotional reactions which reflect the teacher's education and life experiences, and which seek expression on their part. To the extent that a teacher can modify her habitual behavior and thinking, she can learn new teaching techniques. Turning to the teacher's use of voice, we must admit that learning new speaking techniques is not too easy. The tone of the voice should be low, clear and friendly, for a whine, a rasp, or a squeak in the voice is a great handicap. Teachers must control volume and pitch, both of which should be low. The voice which can be heard only at very close range is usually most appropriate. The habit of speaking "under" the noise rather than trying to raise the voice above it gets better attention from the children and tends to make them quiet down in order to hear. For group instructions more volume is needed, but the quiet, cozy, personal voice, that is not a whisper, is the one to which children respond most favorably. A teacher whose natural voice is not suitable must cultivate a proper voice until it becomes automatic.

When the use of low pitch and volume have become habitual, the voice does not so easily reveal the emotional upsets of the teacher. Although some books state that teachers must use an unemotional tone of voice, such a thing is impossible, for every sound carries an emotional tone, pleasant or otherwise. Teachers must be aware of their emotions and realize that they must not allow all their feelings to be revealed to the children, and that control of the expression of their emotions through the voice is most important. Often the voice reveals bad feeling when gestures and postures are noncommittal. Since we do not hear our own voices as they sound to others, we cannot be sure that our speech is appropriate except by having it judged by other adults or by observing the reactions

of children. To develop a teaching voice that is well modulated, emotionally controlled, and yet not artificial or monotonous, takes conscious effort, time, and practice.

The teacher's body is a whole which carries her posture, gestures, facial expressions, and speech. While her inner nature most certainly shines through to the children, they also appreciate pretty clothes, a neat hair-do, and an air of well-being in a teacher. To be counted as a teaching technique in a wider sense is the ability to be attractively dressed and groomed, to avoid monotony of dress, and to enjoy wearing good clothes while teaching.

Before turning to specific teaching techniques for handling certain behavior problems, let us consider their general purpose. The object of teaching is to uphold the child's behavior, or to modify his behavior, or to enrich his experience, and our techniques are used to promote one of these three ends. When the child goes along with the adult, all is well, but when he and the adult clash, specific teaching techniques must be employed. However, in all the detailed discussions which are to follow, the reader should keep in mind one technique which a teacher must have at her disposal — the ability to change techniques. While such flexibility is partly a matter of native temperament, it can also be developed to some extent as an acquired professional skill. The teaching aim is to get the child to respond to the physical environment and to the personalities in the school in certain definite ways. The clashes of human wills create countless situations of friction, control of which calls for great technical skill on the teacher's part. And the first purpose of all our teaching techniques must be to reduce and ease human frictions. To modify a child's behavior on a sound basis we must change his feelings: thus, all techniques are designed to contribute to the development of good feeling and the kind of behavior that springs from it. Now we shall discuss a number of the behavior problems encountered in nursery school, and then the so-called "problem child."

Common Behavior Problems

The list of behavior problems is quite extensive, because young children cry, spit, have tantrums, bite, masturbate, snatch, pinch, hit, kick, swear, exhibit the body, play with feces, day-dream,

tell lies, whine, soil and wet their clothing, eat dirt, refuse to eat, tease others, refuse to listen, make noises, kill insects with enjoyment, sulk, act fresh, act scared, act dumb, disobey, steal, dawdle, brag, bully babies, run away, throw things, demand constant attention, and in many other ways make their presence a nuisance to adults. We shall try to see what is back of some of this distressing behavior, in terms of the dynamics discussed in the chapter on discipline.

For normal children a teacher who is a good technician will suffice, but for problem children a teaching artist is required. The artist is one who uses techniques in an inspired fashion. Inspirations have to be used to handle problems, but there are also techniques available. In any problem situation an important feature of the technique is always the use of some word, facial expression, or gesture that unmistakably conveys to the child that the teacher likes him, and at the same time expresses the teacher's willingness and ability to help him over the existing difficulty. In other words, affection plus authority, either affectionate authority or authoritative affection must do the trick — never one by itself. Affection without authority is ineffective, and authority without affection is worthless. Affection stems from the teacher's heart; authority is based upon her experience and her emotional maturity and stability. These things cannot be taught, but they can be learned. And so, with this attitude of affectionate authority in mind, let us look at some behavior problems.

Crying was designed by nature as a means of relieving inner tension, and every baby uses it as a tool to get proper attention. Adults do not approve of crying because they find it unpleasant to listen to — this, however, does not alter the facts of nature. Crying is normal for all children of nursery school age, and we should allow them to cry for any legitimate reason. As a rule, a good nursery school has less crying than a poor one, although it may be that in a very poor one the children do not cry because they are punished for doing so. The older children should, of course, cry less easily than the younger ones. There are various types of crying, and each case must be diagnosed individually before anything is done about it. The child who cries simply to have a negative aggressive outlet should be ignored, for he gets relief that way and other forms of negative aggression might do more harm. If the cry-

ing doesn't bother the teacher, it usually does not last long nor does it upset other children. Such aggressive crying is the kind which seems to say, "I hate you and I'll cry loud and make you mad — I'm allowed to cry and you can't stop me." When it is persistent, the child should be led to a room where he can cry freely without bothering others. Crying that is purely a negative aggressive act is not very common, and does not usually last long enough to annoy teachers. It usually shifts quite soon to a regressive or evasive type of weeping. While negative aggressive crying should get an indifferent response from the teacher, regressive and evasive crying call for her sympathetic interest and her effort to correct whatever may be disturbing the child. To ignore such crying either increases it or forces the child into such regressive behavior as thumb sucking, into evasive behavior such as running away, or into a fixative state where he refuses to move, to listen or to talk, or to be consoled or diverted in any way. In other words, such ignoring would be negative discipline and would be not only harmful but actually cruel.

It can never be said of a child that he is crying for no reason at all. That is impossible. It may only be said that he is crying for reasons unknown. Because of that, it is very helpful to take a child's hands in yours, look intently into his eyes and ask, "Do you know why you are crying?" Repeat the question and continue, "If you could tell me, maybe I could do something about it." An answer may never come, but more often it will, and then it must be taken for what it is worth. If the child thinks his feelings have been hurt, always give sympathy and go on to say, "You don't have to cry any more about it, you're a big boy," or, "We can find another wagon," or, "You will get your turn," or any other remark which is consoling in the given situation. Never shame a child for crying, for easy crying is the mark of a sensitive person. Needless to say the teacher should not call any child a "crybaby."

Crying that comes from homesickness must be tolerated, but at the same time every effort should be made to influence the child's feeling through some direct, loving effort in order to stop the crying, for continued crying may engender more homesickness. This can be done by hugging and kissing the child, and by telling him not to cry. The whole question of crying is one of letting enough of it take place to relieve inner tensions and then not let it continue to a point where further tension is created by the act of crying

itself. The inconsolable child just has to live through the misery, but that does not mean that efforts to console should be abandoned. We should never think it doesn't help to keep right on pouring out affection no matter how unfriendly the reception, for the failure to do so will prolong the agony. Even if the affection must be given at a distance, that does not diminish its helpfulness. Sympathy must be given without identification, or the child will take on the teacher's misery, too. Sympathy means being able to give another person understanding comfort in time of distress without being too upset oneself by the emotion that the other person is suffering from. If we try to visualize the fact that the child will be happy and beaming in a few days, this will help us keep from getting identified.

Tantrums are explosions of violent inner tension. They are outbursts which cannot be entirely prevented, not even in the child who is emotionally healthy. They require a treatment which is free from hostility and which combines indifference at one phase of the tantrum with great sympathy at another. All forms of negative discipline add fuel to the fire or cause undesirable regressive acts in children over four. Most tantrums start with evasive behavior—as a way of getting out of doing something, and develop into regressive acts when they really get going. A pretended or threatened tantrum is an act of destructive aggression and should be entirely ignored, but the ignoring must be skillfully done, since the child can get so mad at the teacher's refusal to get upset that he will eventually produce a genuine tantrum.

It is best to let a tantrum take its course through the initial explosive stage, except with older children who should be helped to nip it in the bud if that is possible. In some cases a well-timed remark can turn the tide, for the older child can usually be made to recall what set him off and can be reasoned into satisfactory behavior; however, the younger child often doesn't know what angered him, and the teacher may not be able to guess correctly. It is never a good thing to let a tantrum be prolonged. Its violence generally cannot be influenced, but its duration can be shortened if the teacher watches for the first sign of relaxation and talks quietly to the child about some completely new and diverting subject as if there had been no tantrum at all. Sometimes it is good to help a child up and get about some other thing, but this can be wrong, too. He may need to lie calmly to restore his inner balance

before he moves around again. Hugging a child during and after a tantrum is helpful if he will let you. It is silly to scold, but there may be a time when the teacher can say "You needn't get so mad when . . ." and then say, "Tell your teacher, maybe she can help you, don't just get mad." It must be remembered that a seemingly trivial thing is sufficient cause for the tantrum, since the inner hook-up, not the outer reality, determines its psychological mechanism. A child who is violent toward others in his tantrum must be physically restrained. It takes experience to learn how to hold a child so that he doesn't feel you are mad at him, when you are actually annoyed by his behavior. A child having a tantrum must also be protected from other children who set upon him. Tantrums at home and at school are often the result of too severe or too unstable discipline; therefore never cross a child who has just had a tantrum. Give him plenty of time to find his balance again. Finally, the teacher need not look upon all tantrums as a reflection upon herself; they come from many different inner sources, and in a given case the specific cause may not be knowable. The teacher should always keep in mind that tantrums must be outgrown, not suppressed.

Spitting is not an inadmissible activity of nursery school children as we learned in Chapter 7. It constitutes regressive behavior if it is overdone in a playful way, and then the child needs encouragement to act his age. However, most nursery school spitting is an expression of hostile aggression. This form should be discouraged; but if an effort is made to eradicate it with hostile teaching attitudes, other undesirable mouth behavior is likely to develop and other kinds of negative aggressive behavior may take its place. The child who actually wants to spit for fun should be directed to a safe place to do it, but making a child spit in the toilet as a punishment creates unhealthy guilt feeling. Spitting is just one of the numerous unattractive things children do because they are so mouth-centered, and is far less destructive than some of the other things. If our morning health inspection is good, we needn't worry about germs. Usually spitting is not much of a problem except where teachers have made it into one. Sometimes it is a reaction to the teacher's efforts to stop the use of bad language. Appropriate comments from teachers about spitting are: "People don't like to be spit at, and we shouldn't do it," or "If you want to spit, play over there

where nobody will be bothered by it," or "Why don't you say something, don't just spit at him," or "I don't like to be spit at," and let it go at that. In nursery school, spitting can only be reduced — never entirely eliminated.

Biting is destructive aggression or counteraggression, and must always be discouraged because it is dangerous. The biter needs the teacher's sympathy more than the bitten child, for only a mistreated and unhappy child is a severe or habitual biter. He must be closely watched, and, if necessary, prevented by force from biting. Especially in the matter of biting great care must be taken to condemn the deed but not the doer. The child who is punished for biting will always find other destructive aggressive outlets and will eventually become even more difficult. He is not the kind who regresses into untroublesome behavior, but usually develops destructive habits of the evasive type. To bite other people is a normal aggressive act for a two- or three-year-old, but a regressive aggressive act for the older child. Where an older child bites instead of speaking because he can't say what he would like to, it is an evasive, regressive, and destructive act. Such a child always has a bad history regarding his early emotional life, and we certainly should not be severe with him in nursery school. If the biting is directed against objects, it is more akin to thumb sucking, and serves as a means of relieving inner tensions. When things are put in the mouth to suck on, the behavior is regressive, but when the child bites on things in his mouth, one may assume that repressed aggressions are released by this activity.

When biting of other children is fixative, that is, when it is done constantly, say, every five minutes, a teacher must be assigned to such a child or he cannot be kept in nursery school. He must be watched and forcibly prevented from biting by quickly grabbing either him or the child about to be bitten. The teacher then says, "You mustn't bite, Johnny; no, no, you mustn't bite, that hurts; we don't let children bite each other in nursery school." She looks him in the eye while she says this and also establishes some physical contact. She speaks to him with an authoritative air, and then hugs or pats him and tells him to go play, or takes him to play herself. At all times she gives him as much approving attention as possible, so that he gets the feeling that he is being watched as well as approved. Whenever he bites, she repeats the whole procedure. If she is too

busy to keep up with him, he will bite pretty often, and each time she must then make it clear to him that biting is bad, but also that she thinks he is a darling especially so long as he does not bite. However, if she makes him feel rejected for his biting, then the inner need to bite is usually intensified. If a teacher can be assigned to work consistently with this method, many a case of severe biting will clear up in about a week. Not only that, but the child's whole nature will change with it. Punishment, however, is fatal — only approval of the child's person combined with the disapproval of the biting will work. If teachers realize that a biter is always a child who has been seriously misunderstood in some way, they can be more sympathetic with him, not manifesting that righteous indignation which is so destructive. Cases in which the biting cannot be much reduced within a week are the exception, and these children cannot be kept in the nursery school because they are too much of a burden for the supervising teacher.

Thumb-sucking or finger sucking is a consoling regressive act and we should never try to break the habit. We should provide other satisfactions of various kinds that make the child not care to suck his thumb. For many children when they have to wait, keep quiet, go to sleep, or face new situations, thumb-sucking is a comfort. Where adults are angered by the behavior, it may also represent an aggressive act which the child performs even if he is scolded. Fixative thumb-sucking is what annoys most adults. At the age of two most children suck their thumbs to some degree. By four the habit should be outgrown, and it must be outgrown rather than given up under pressure unless other undesirable forms of self-consolation are to replace it. As we know, some children go to pieces if severe discipline is used against thumb-sucking. We should do nothing about it in a direct fashion in nursery school. It should not be talked about, nor ridiculed by other children.

Masturbation is another habit that can be developed to excess. It must be considered a normal activity so long as it is not practiced in a compulsive fashion. The primary reason why most children masturbate is, of course, that they find it pleasurable. However, to some extent masturbation is an evasive reaction — a means of getting comfort from oneself instead of from others; it may also develop into an aggressive act where it has been forbidden, and it is fixative when it becomes a compulsive habit. Since masturbation is a nor-

mal phenomenon at all ages, it cannot, by itself, be regarded as regressive. With excessive masturbation, as with thumb sucking in aggravated cases, we must try to ease the inner tensions which prompt the masturbation but never attempt to prevent it by direct prohibition. Most of all, we must not contribute to creating guilt on the part of the child, for that leads first to anxiety and then to more masturbation or to other forms of evasive behavior. The children who masturbate frequently and openly in the presence of others are the ones who have considerable anxiety. Indeed it is believed by psychoanalysts that most children suffer so much anxiety and guilt from masturbation and from toilet training failures that they carry a load of anxiety from these two sources alone so heavy that it can account for most of their destructive aggression. When masturbation is excessive, it is very important to build up the child's self-esteem through affectionate approval of his person and by offering him many other satisfactions. Negative discipline, on the other hand, can lay the cornerstone for a neurosis. It is never in order. Teachers should not feel guilty for ignoring masturbation, although they often fear that other children will learn by imitation. But it is not as simple to imitate masturbation as it may seem, because it is based on sensations that cannot be produced by mere imitation of another child's behavior. The child must himself want to do it to get into the habit. Since all children masturbate at some time or other, those who do not practice it regularly are the ones who do not feel the need for it.

Masturbation is a very complicated psychological problem. Nursery school teachers should not interfere with it unless the child masturbates too frequently, or so openly that it upsets others. Even then it must always be borne in mind that direct efforts to prevent it are doomed to failure. Having the teacher sitting near the child who masturbates when he goes to sleep or at the lunch table, is good if the child likes this attention, not otherwise.

Soiling and wetting are the privilege of young babies. In our society we begin toilet training at too early an age; consequently, there is much regressive behavior in this regard in any group of young children. Wetting is aggressive when it is done to get even; it is regressive when it serves to get attention; and evasive when the child is afraid, for some reason or other, to go to the toilet. Since all children suffer from considerable guilt over incontinence, it is

very necessary that we do not add to this burden in nursery school by any negative discipline. Ways to deal with soiling and wetting are given under Routines in Chapter 12.

Demanding attention is often an aggressive act because children know the adult is annoyed by the distraction. More frequently, however, it is an evasive one which is intended to relieve boredom or worries, or which helps to avoid some unpleasant task. Sometimes children are intuitively aware of the adult's mental state, and demand attention when they feel insecure because they sense that the adult is worried. It is a typical phenomenon to demand attention for everything and anything when curiosity about sex, death, or disasters is not appropriately satisfied. Demanding attention becomes fixative when the child suffers severe anxiety, such as fear of dying or of losing a loved one. After an illness, a child will tend to demand attention by acting helpless in a regressive fashion. As a rule, adults have little sympathy for children whose demands for attention are excessive, and they often resist a legitimate demand for attention in an effort to curb the desire. "He just wants attention" is an expression taken to mean that the child is spoiled. But if the child's inner and outer needs are properly satisfied, his demand for adult attention becomes reasonable. While young children are naturally self-centered, they do not pester adults unless they are inwardly pestered themselves. Sometimes children are determined to get "bread instead of a stone," or approval instead of indifference, from the teacher, and then they may even be naughty because that is the only way to get attention. With such children it is best to ignore as far as possible their misdeeds and to recognize emphatically their accomplishments, but always keeping in mind that the surest way to increase annoying demands for attention is to resist them.

Throwing things in anger is an outlet for aggression; it is evasive aggression whenever it is less dangerous than hurling bad words. It is regressive in older children when done in a feeble way. We cannot permit throwing things in nursery school since it is dangerous. To throw balls instead may be suggested, but this substitution is not always accepted because it does not satisfy the child's hostile feelings. Therefore, in most cases vigorous running or climbing is a better substitute. When children start throwing things in protest, it is good to send them outside, or, if this is impossible,

try to get some diversion for them, preferably one which involves changing of posture. It is not wise to try to let the children "whoop it up" in the room, however. For the teacher to get mad at them may give them big satisfaction and whip up the desire to throw the works. When children persist in throwing blocks or clay, they should be taken away and another occupation given. The teacher should keep in mind that mud-throwing outdoors is done as a spontaneous muscle activity.

Daydreaming, withdrawing, moping, and sulking are effective ways of evading unpleasant situations. A child should never be punished for such behavior; he would only feel humiliated, and that would reinforce his desire to be by himself and thus feed a potential persecution complex. Daydreaming is never cured by negative discipline. The withdrawn child even more than others needs a complete absence of threats and punishments. The normal introverted child must not be confused with the withdrawn child. A well-adjusted introverted child is happy, only he is quieter than the extraverted one. The dreamy child is not a happy one. As a rule the atmosphere of the nursery school, in which so many group activities go on at all times, has a very healthy influence on the daydreaming child.

Whining is a sure sign of discomfort or pain, physical or emotional. Its cause should be ascertained. A lot of whining is normal behavior for two-year-olds; it is regressive in the older ones — they should be more articulate about their needs and discomforts. Whining is aggressive if it is practiced to annoy the adults. Teachers must not show annoyance, but point out that whining is babyish and should be outgrown. "Ask in a big voice instead of whining," conveys a good attitude on the part of the adult. Persistent whining is a sign of inner distress and cannot be suppressed by negative discipline without undesirable consequences. Some children have never had their requests granted unless they whined, and this is the only way they know to melt the heart of — or to bully — an adult. The teacher must not fall for it, and must, with patience and consistency, demonstrate to the child the advantages of a less babyish behavior.

Eating dirt of all kinds is quite agreeable to many children. We cannot let them do it, but we must not make them feel guilty over it. On the other hand, we can let them get dirty and play with

dirt, clay, paste, sand, finger paint, and other things they can enjoy messing with. Since as very young babies they have played or tried to play with their b.m.'s, to the horror of their mothers, and since there is always the parents' fear of infection, children arrive in nursery school with a well-developed dirt complex. Most of them have had very bad emotional experiences connected with the dirt that their bodies have produced and with the things they have put in their mouths. For this reason nursery school children usually exhibit some phobias or compulsions regarding dirt. They must be taught to distinguish between safe and unsafe dirt, but it is no use for the teacher to get shocked or alarmed over children who love dirt. Getting dirty is a fine aggressive outlet against mother if she objects strongly. Of course, it is regressive for a child to be undiscriminating about dirt, but it is adding fuel to the fire of a potential neurosis if teachers act violently against the child's love of dirt. We need to be quite rational, natural, and friendly, and we must follow the rules we have set up about the dirt play in school. Excessive or compulsive eating of dirt reflects a dietary or emotional lack. The school doctor should make recommendations and teachers should be careful not to press the toilet training with a child of this type.

Noisemaking is something at which most children excel. It is both an expression of natural exuberance and a way to get even with the adults. A noisy protest is the right of anyone at any age, but in nursery school we must set rules for the where and when of noisemaking. Outside there are no restrictions — inside there are. Outdoor noises or voices are any that would represent a disturbance to the group inside and cause excitement in the children which would lead to disorganized behavior. We must consistently remind the children about voices, but we must not nag, punish, or make them feel guilty. Adult nerves simply cannot stand the noise children make if they are left unrestrained, therefore we must curb them. By doing so in a pleasant fashion we are not inhibiting the children too much, and we do preserve everybody's sanity. Not even all children can stand their combined noise when it is unrestrained, and many children show ill effects from too much noise in the school room. The larger the group, the more the noise, of course; therefore, as much dividing of the group as possible, even for short intervals, helps to cut down noise and strain, especially on

Snatching, hitting, pinching, and kicking are all destructive aggressive outlets presumably provided by nature — the children all are able to do these things without being taught. When they are done surreptitiously, with vicious intent, or without provocation the motive often is some kind of jealousy, and the offending child reveals in this way an inner conflict of serious dimensions. He needs love, not punishment. The older the child, the more he should rely on his wits and on his ability to make his wants known by the use of language. None of these forms of behavior are proper for nursery school but they must be accepted as human. The teacher should try to get the child to abandon such practices by treating him according to the basic prescription of condemning the deed, but not the doer, and also by creating an atmosphere where there is equality of opportunity for all the children to have things, to get attention, and to achieve success. Thus, the necessity for such jungle reactions is decreased. When snatching, hitting, grabbing and kicking are unprovoked and just an expression of hostility, the treatment is the same as for biting. Where snatching or grabbing seem to be the child's only method for getting an object he wants, he is told as well as shown that there are better ways for getting things. Teachers should see to it that the snatcher gives back the snatched items, but in doing so she must be patient with him. The child from whom something is snatched usually howls and tries to snatch back. The teacher should assure him he will get back his toy but allow plenty of time for this event to take place. Preferably she tries to find a duplicate toy and thus to satisfy both children; where this is impossible, she should attempt in some other way to make both children happy. She can say, "You give it back, and then when John is through, you can have a turn. I'll see that you get it. John, you be sure to give the truck to Peter, and let me know when you are through with it." Using physical force to get a child to give up a snatched article does not teach him not to snatch. It only increases the desire to do so. Instead, the teacher should keep repeating, "I'm waiting for you to give the truck back." When the teacher keeps after the child in this fashion, no matter how long it takes, he will almost certainly relinquish possession of the contested article and feel afterwards that he has done the right thing. Where a new or timid child has been robbed by one who is well established in school, it is often better to interfere at once with physical restraint. In each

case the teacher must quickly decide what the psychological effect on both children will be, and act accordingly. The chronic snatcher must be treated with greater tolerance, the occasional one can be dealt with more promptly.

Telling lies obviously reflects the child's inability to face the truth, which is due either to his immaturity or to evasive behavior. The teacher should gently point out the lie and at the same time convey to the child that she understands his need for telling it. It is important to keep in mind that lies may represent nothing but a flight of the imagination, and that lack of clear distinction between reality and fantasy is common in children. The teacher should not suspect vicious intent with regard to lying, although lying can be an aggressive act when it is done to get someone into trouble. The motivation for such lying can sometimes be explained to a child, but not always. The accounts of preschool children can never be taken at their face value, but any statement should be taken as possibly true, at least in part, or in terms of the inner psychological truth. If the teacher can ascertain what feelings or ideas a child is trying to convey by the lying, and show understanding for it, the lying tends to be reduced. For example, one child may say, "My daddy has a new car"; the next one, "My daddy has two new cars"; and, again, another, "My daddy has a hundred new cars." It is clear that such competitive bragging cannot be cleared up by pointing out factual truth. The teacher could smilingly say, "I guess nobody should use a hundred cars, but you boys know how to use lots of cars when you build a garage with blocks, don't you? You can make some fine garages, can't you?" Such a comment would show that the teacher doesn't fall for absurd stories, and at the same time would decrease the psychological need to invent them. It is not good to use the derogatory word "lie"; it is better to refer to stories as "not quite right," "not really true," or "the wrong idea." To punish children for lying is to shut the door of confidence to the adult which the child should always find open. Usually, even deliberate, intentional, and malicious lies need not cause alarm. The feeling of insecurity which prompts them must be relieved if there is to be sound character development. If children can be trained to "take their punishment" when they have done wrong, strong character should emerge. However, "punishment" should be nothing but the consistent pointing out of the truth and the right.

Stealing is often an aggressive act, and its motivation must be uncovered. Usually it is an unmoral act of appropriation and in a sense a healthy act of aggression; but the child must be taught understanding of property rights as they exist in our society. Therefore, an essential part of this teaching is to respect him and his property rights. Stealing may be a kind of simple grabbing followed by hiding the grabbed object. Children must be shown the proper ways to get what they want. Sometimes stealing is done to deprive the owner, rather than to obtain an object; in such cases the situation calls for an improvement of the personal relationships. In preschool children stealing, just as lying, must never be dealt with harshly.

Dawdling is obviously an evasive act — the child doesn't want to wash, or go to bed, or go to the toilet. It can also be done deliberately to make an adult mad. Only removing the reasons for the child's desire to dawdle can clear it up in a healthy way. The great advantage of nursery school is that it has time to let children dawdle, and many need very much to do so. Of course the dawdling child must not interfere with the activities of others. Dawdling on the slide, for example, is all right only if others are not around and wanting to use it.

Bragging is obviously a sign of inferiority and everyone should know that it can only be curbed by building up the ego — not by the customary humiliating approach. The excessive bragging of four- and five-year-old boys is characteristic of that age and should be looked upon as normal. It is probably due to the fact that boys are under great pressure from parents and society to be masculine, because at this age the question of sex difference is very much in the picture. While girls are allowed to continue to be babyish because such behavior is considered feminine, any regressive behavior on the part of boys is harshly treated. Bragging in nursery school can be greatly reduced if outlets for aggressive impulses are provided and if the boys can play out some of their inner conflicts in the doll corner.

Running away is evasion, or hostile aggression, or perhaps giving into an uncontrollable desire to get some place. If a child is punished for running away he will try the next time to do it when the chances of success seem better. A strong superego opposed to running away must be developed early in city children if they are to

be kept alive on city streets. A teacher should never run after a child who runs away from her unless he or others are in immediate danger. For one thing, it is silly to run after children if they can run faster. Also, the chase adds in an undesirable fashion to the excitement, fear, or satisfaction of running away. The adult must always walk after a child who is to be brought back; she should call to him calmly, "I'm waiting for you to come, but I'm not going to run after you." Then she must follow the child persistently until he can't stand it any more and gives in. When he is sure that he won't be punished, he will come quickly, and soon he will not run away any more. Some children never feel the need to run away: it is the child with anxiety and the one who has been punished a great deal who tends to do so. If a child gets up on the jungle gym and refuses to come down, for instance, at the time to go indoors, the teacher will have to say finally, "If you don't come down by yourself, I'll have to come up and get you." After a little wait she must climb after him quietly and with assurance, neither angrily nor jokingly, with the air that this is one of those things that will be done if necessary.

To teach children not to cross streets alone is not the job of the nursery school; however, we can point out to parents for what use they may make of it, that the way to train the child is to keep explaining, to make him go back every time he runs ahead and let the parent take his hand. Where a child is treated with kindly understanding, this method will work. Where he is punished or slapped, it will not.

Stuttering usually develops because the expression of normal aggressions has not been permitted. It can annoy adults and cause them to embarrass a stutterer who obviously already suffers from inner conflict. In nursery school, stuttering is absolutely ignored by the teacher who tries not to show that she notices it. It may be all right to say, "Tell me that again," and have the child get the feel of improvement if repeating helps him. Frequently, children who are punished severely, or those who are pushed too much intellectually, stutter at the preschool age. It should be noted that a certain amount of stuttering or stammering is quite normal, especially when it is limited to times of great excitement. If a child makes fun of a stutterer, he should be spoken to privately and told not to. When a child asks why another stutters, the answer is "Oh, he

tries to speak too fast," or "He's still thinking of what he wants to say." In many cases the nursery school can correct stuttering because it has such a great variety of opportunities for building up self-confidence and for making the child feel at ease. The main factor in this is that the nursery school atmosphere is child-centered rather than adult-centered.

Acting stupid is annoying to adults, especially to parents, and can be either an evasive or an aggressive act. It furnishes an easy way to get out of doing something, if the adult is brought to believe that the child is not up to it. It is an aggressive act when it is done deliberately to annoy or get even with adults. Much apparent stupidity is only the result of emotional conflicts and not an actual intellectual deficiency. Such pseudo-stupidity is readily remedied in nursery school since the teachers will not fall for the child's pretense of being dumb. The teacher never asks a child "Are you stupid?" but she may say, "You're not stupid," if she knows he has been called that by his parents, or if other children call him that. Otherwise the word should not be used. It is like "don't run" — he hears "stupid" instead of "not."

Refusing to listen is evasive and a sign that something very disagreeable is in the picture, which may or may not have anything to do with the momentary situation. In nursery school practice it amounts to the same as acting dumb.

Refusing to eat, if persistent and chronic, is a sign of a serious inner conflict. When it occurs intermittently, it merely reflects the ups and downs of the child's feelings. So much has been written on the futility of negative discipline in this field that no more need be said. In all cases, a fundamental change of mood must be brought about, and new zest for life must be stimulated. The refusal to eat is always primarily evasive, but it can easily become fixated or take on aggressive meaning.

Refusing to talk is often rooted in fear of talking, that is, of saying the wrong thing. Taciturnity may also reflect a chronic state of emotional dissatisfaction or frustration. Refusal to talk can be a way of expressing hostility when the silence is stubborn. Also, the wish to be a baby again can be demonstrated through the inability to speak. Here again, the fundamental mood must be changed. Letting the children tell stories and sing helps to break silence. One must keep in mind, too, that some children live with

such taciturn parents that they do not develop the normal interest in the use of language.

Acting fresh is healthier behavior than refusing to talk or eat. It has to be stopped, though, if others are unduly hurt. The teacher should always remember that the fresh guy usually feels inferior, and that his forward behavior may be covering up a feeling of insecurity. When acting fresh constitutes an effort to divert the adult, or to irritate someone, no attention should be paid to it. Sometimes freshness is quite innocently unintentional. It is flattering for a teacher to have a child be reasonably fresh with her, for it shows his trust in her good humor. The appropriate limits for freshness tolerable in a nursery school relationship can be better established by positive, rather than by negative, discipline. We allow the children more leeway than do their homes, especially in the children's use of language, for we look upon the verbal aggressions of the preschool age as relatively harmless and not habit-forming.

Swearing is usually a negative aggressive act, though quite frequently it is simply an imitative one. When teachers punish for swearing or get too upset about it, children know they have a sure-fire weapon, and swearing tends to increase. Too much swearing may also be a sign of a repressive atmosphere, although a little swearing is healthy. When prohibited from verbalizing, children swear under their breath and the real swearing is not really stopped. While swearing is one of the most harmless methods of relieving tension and getting rid of hostile aggression, most adults view it with horror in children, but think it quite fitting for themselves. As a rule, they view obscene words with even more alarm, since most adults do not go in for obscenity. We cannot expect all teachers to be free of their own emotional conflicts in regard to swearing to such a degree that they are entirely immune to the verbal excesses of the preschool age; but nursery school teachers must learn to control their personal sensibilities and must become tolerant in respect to the verbal obscenities of the children. Here lies one of the greatest difficulties for the beginning teacher. With most teachers a considerable amount of practical work is required to reconcile them to this aspect of the young child's normal behavior. Where teachers are either shocked or unconsciously delighted by the children's swearing, the children may sense this and become unable to

resist the temptation to go in for an extra dose. Children are "anal-minded" because so much attention will inevitably be focused on the whole anal complex by toilet training. "You old b.m.," "you old poo-poo," "you stupid ass," "you big shit" are commonplace in nursery school where children are not punished for the use of such language, because these words frequent their thoughts. This type of verbal obscenity is a normal phase in every child's development and will be outgrown if it is allowed to come out freely at the pre-school age.

Exhibition of the genitals, or more popularly, of the navel, is often done naïvely, but sometimes it constitutes negative aggression. In older children, it is a kind of sex play. Negative discipline applied to exhibitionism creates guilt feelings and anxiety that may influence the child's later attitude toward sex in an unhealthy fashion.

Nervous habits, such as twitching, nail-biting, eating of nose dirt, or twisting hair are signs of inner distress. In some cases, but usually not, they can be turned on and off at will. Generally they are aggravated if an adult creates anxiety about them since, as a rule, they have been brought on by some form of frustration such as negative discipline, unsatisfied sex curiosity, illness, or corporal punishment.

Fighting can be verbal or physical, and represents a sustained hostility between children or between child and adult, and thus differs from petty hitting, scratching, or kicking. Fighting is in the open and is usually provoked by some understandable cause, real or imagined. Since fighting is dangerous and stirs up hostile aggressions, guilt feelings and anxieties, the teacher never approves of fighting and never suggests it. She tolerates it within limits, and turns a blind eye to it if it seems to be healthy for a timid child. Since fighting cannot be allowed to take its natural course, it should be broken up early and the children told that there is a rule that "we are not supposed to fight in nursery school." The destructively aggressive child only becomes worse if he is punished for fighting. He must be given proper outlets for his aggressions, and his anxieties must be relieved. The timid child, on the other hand, certainly should not be punished if he develops some aggressive behavior in the form of fighting.

Disobedience can be a reflection of every kind of conflict a child

has. It can be aggressive, regressive, evasive, or fixated. Under the dictate of a severe superego a child can be too obedient. What we strive for is a reasonable and healthy balance between obedience and disobedience. The overobedient person looks for direction such as a totalitarian state gives; the reasonably obedient child grows up to be well adjusted to the life in a democracy. The adult who cannot stand disobedience is unfit for nursery school work, not excluding cooking and housekeeping, for the non-teaching staff tends to interfere in cases of disobedience. It takes a long time to build proper habits of obedience in children, and only mature adults can do this. In nursery school it must be settled when obedience will be insisted upon — for instance, in the matter of staying inside the fence, and under what circumstances it is not so definitely exacted — for instance, in the matter of coming in to wash on time. When everything else is right, obedience is only occasionally a problem.

We have come to the end of our list of annoying things children do. There are still more, but we have discussed all the important ones. Teachers who really like children find all their behavior interesting and would not enjoy teaching if children were good all the time. The deeper satisfaction of teaching comes from the emotional relationships which are developed in the school; when the teacher's unconscious emotional attitude toward children is hostile, she loves to make children do exactly what she tells them and she enjoys the feeling of being a powerful adult whom the children have to fear and respect. When her feelings are friendly, she enjoys seeing the children become released, active, natural and happy; she knows how to keep them from getting into too much trouble, and they love her for this. The power-loving, or the bossy teacher uses negative discipline and the child-loving teacher uses the positive approach. With the one, the child must suppress undesirable behavior as much as possible; with the other, the child must keep his misbehaving within reasonable bounds — it is not looked upon as exactly sinful. Even when the two types of teacher agree on what is undesirable behavior, one would like to eradicate it — the other is able to accept and tolerate it as a natural fact. The one tries continually to drive certain forms of behavior altogether from the classroom and thus creates a restricted living situation. The other allows all expressions of feeling to come out in the school, but she is able to keep within certain bounds the children's actions which

tend to follow from their feelings. When children are free to express their feelings, and when their behavior is appraised in a friendly and constructive fashion, they will acquire that self-confidence and emotional security which are so essential for normal development. We believe that the doors to all kinds of behavior should be left open at least a crack, which is something that only someone who understands children can do. The understanding teacher's technique is a simple one – the free use of approving words and gestures, and a minimum use of negative ones. She does not alternate between anger and affection; she has a warm personality. Teacher training should be given only to such personalities. Teachers themselves must learn to recognize and to wait for the slower but better founded responses that come in answer to the use of positive discipline and "unlearn" the satisfaction derived from seeing the quicker, but unhealthy responses children give to negative discipline.

The Problem Child

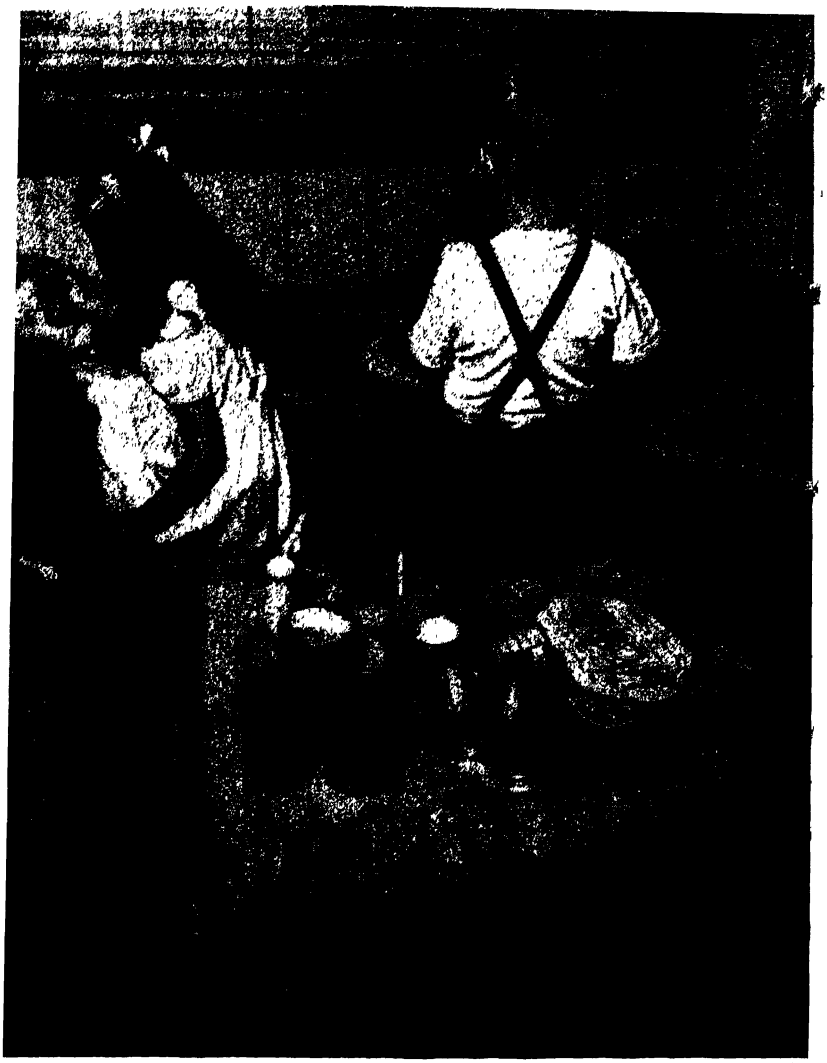
We have seen that children's behavior is no simple good or bad affair. For us there are only behavior problems – there is, in truth, no misbehavior. Let us have another look at these problems, this time from the angle of the problem child. The most difficult child in nursery school is the one whose hostile aggressions are dangerous to others. Let us assume that he is also a child who hits, snatches, kicks, fights; who throws things, has a short attention span, and laughs when teachers or children get mad. He cannot remain quiet at sleep time. He often has a poor appetite, and may be either silent or overtalkative. The degree to which the child does any or all of these things, and the ability of the teachers to reach him will determine whether or not he can be kept in school. Without sufficient staff no true test of the teacher's ability to reach the child can be made, for such extreme behavior obviously needs a great deal of attention.

Such a child will enter one of our schools with a clean slate. We have no data about his past, other than a health report, because we want none. His behavior the first day will be either an overplay or an underplay of what it will soon settle down to. In either case, we know at once that hostile aggression is this child's big problem. We also know that this child has had unstable home discipline, and



In this story circle everyone has to wait for a turn to see the picture, while in the story group seen below everyone can see the pictures during the entire story. (See page 171.) Note the housekeeper serving hot food from pans into service bowls. In this school the kitchen was half a block from the nursery school rooms.



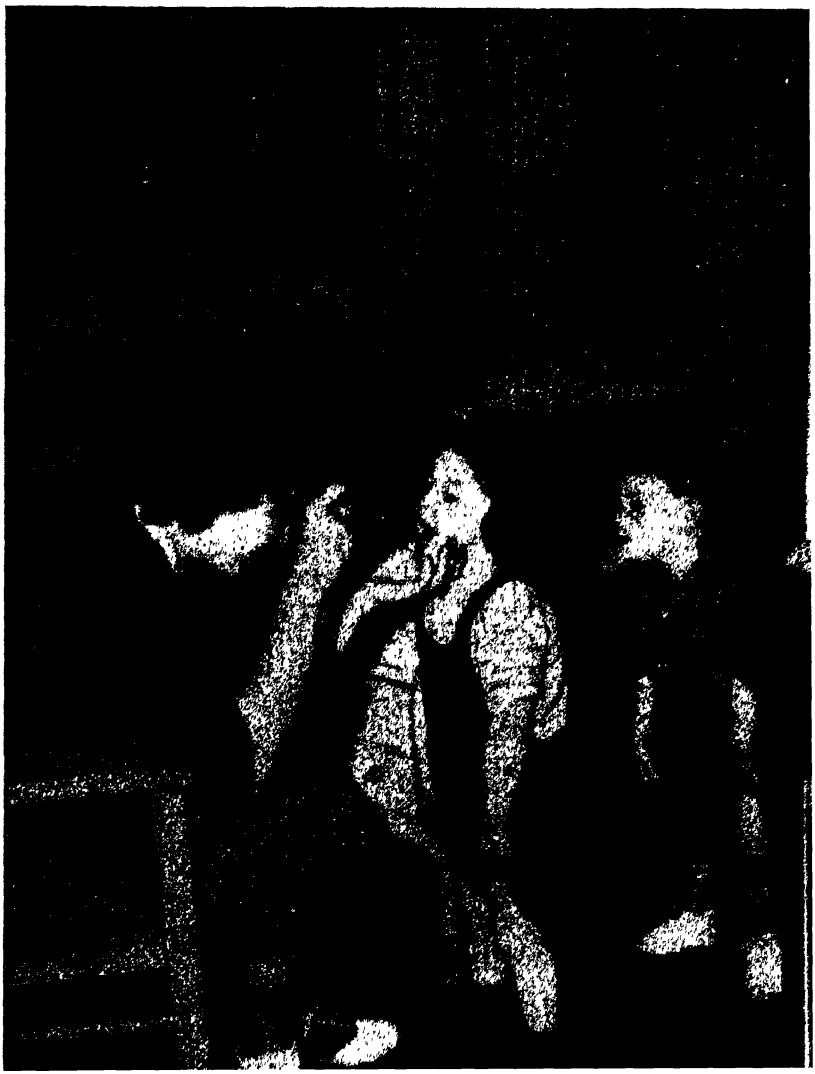


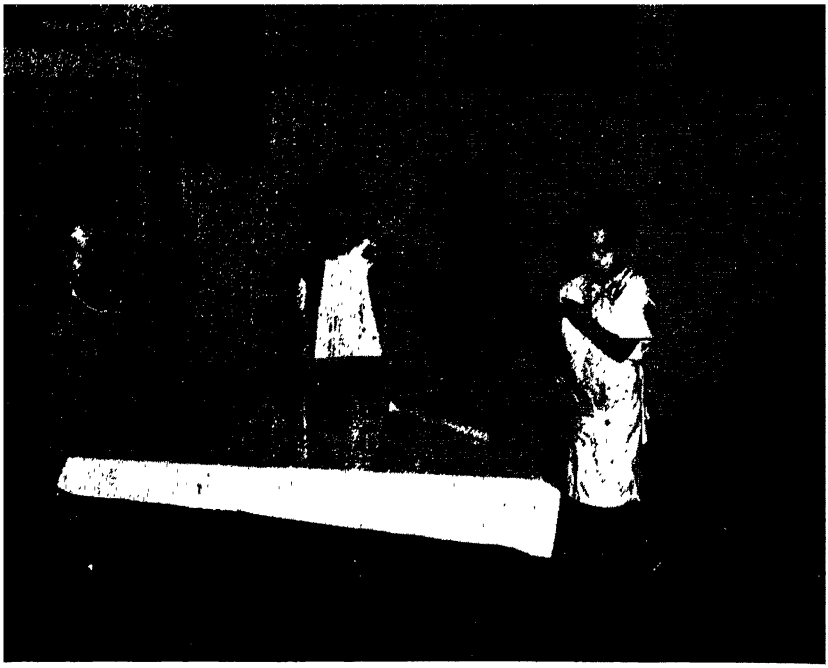
Ralph Putzker

Live "dolls" in the form of playmates are greatly preferred to regular dolls, though the latter will take more beating. Boys like doll play as much as girls at the nursery school age.

Morning health inspection gets coöperation from children after they are used to it. The children pull up their own coveralls for the teacher to see the leg surface. They learn to turn around for her to see the back of the knees before they let go their grip. Here you see them automatically making these movements before the teacher is quite ready to look.

Tom Weber





Two-year-olds can finger paint, too, although they are more reticent than three- or four-year-olds to do so at first. Note the rack for drying finished paintings. The shelves are removable, and one is always on top ready to receive the painting and then to go into its place. Paintings need 24 hours to dry properly. Note how aware two of these children are of the feel of the paint on their fingers.

A three-year-old and her clay work. Just what it is, we don't ask, but her hands made it, her attention is absorbed by it, and therefore we teachers approve of it. It may fall apart, it may be smashed down into a formless lump again, or it may be carefully set upon a shelf to be saved and admired.





When space is at a premium, easels can be placed close together. These three-year-old girls like to do everything together. Here they are enjoying their companionship without cramping each other's style.



A group of eight makes it easy for the teacher. Note how the chairs are placed so that she can see the children by simply turning her head.

Hallways may be decorated with plants and pictures. A wide hall will also take extra cupboards. A passing airplane has caught the interest of these two children.



probably considerable corporal punishment. At this stage, our objectives are: first, to restrain him from hurting others; secondly, to build up his interest and success in wholesome aggressive actions such as climbing, running, cutting, doll play; and lastly, to reduce his anxiety so that his destructive behavior is deprived of some of the motivating power behind it. To restrain him may require frequent use of physical force; but if hostile force is used, our third objective is defeated.

However, we have trouble ahead if we go on, as we must, and adhere consistently to positive discipline. There will come a time when the child will think we are morons and we don't know right from wrong. Because he is allowed to get away with misbehavior, he will feel so guilty that his worry and anxiety will mount and his misbehavior increase. This is the point at which the novice teacher so frequently decides that the positive approach does not work and, turning to a "get tough" manner, sees that the behavior improves. But then — and this is the crux of the whole problem — only some of the behavior improves. That which has been censored the most by the teacher, the hitting or the fighting, may improve, but the eating will probably be worse, the sleeping poorer, and possibly pants-wetting may start. If she now presses hard on the child in these matters, he may or may not try to modify his responses, but in any case eating and sleeping are hard to force. He may now lie quietly on his bed, but take to excessive masturbating; in other words, he will shift his behavior as her pressure forces him. In this there is nothing that is desirable.

So let us go back to our problem child and see what happens if positive discipline is used throughout. The teacher will consistently condemn the deed, but not the doer. It is hard to get the child to understand this distinction, and he will often ask why he is not punished, or does the teacher think he is just a bad boy. The teacher will say that he is a good boy, who does bad things; that he knows better and will feel like doing things the right way as he stays in nursery school and as he gets big. To this idea the child will react in one of three ways. Either he will think the teacher is a dope who doesn't care what he does, so he can do anything he likes; or he will be so pleased at this new estimate of himself and his behavior that he will try out the approved kind of behavior; or he will think the teacher is lying, she doesn't really consider him good, and he will set out to prove this.

When a child takes the first course, his behavior has to be endured until he is ready to embark on the second or third course. The second course is the desired one and we can call the teaching successful, when the child takes it. The third course means that the child is going to test the teacher's sincerity by doing every possible bad thing he can think of to see if he can't get her to break down into punitive action. For if she does, then his estimation of all adults is again proved to be correct, and he can continue to fight against them. If she does not break down, then the child has found someone whom he can trust, like, and obey, and he is now ready to accept positive discipline. To find one really kind adult is to relieve a great deal of the child's anxiety — to find a school full of persons whose hostile feelings are under healthy control is to relieve more anxiety. It is extremely important that the teacher does not break down her positive approach when she is being tested in this fashion. If she wins this battle, her problem child will no longer be a problem.

It is not easy to tell when a child's increased misbehavior is such a testing situation and when it is just due to increased anxiety, but for the purpose of the teacher's response this difference does not really matter. Her methods of handling it will be the same. She will know by results. The testing child will conform more quickly. The anxious child will be slower and more uneven. Children whose home life is brutal may either not get to the testing stage at all, or they may get to it more quickly and welcome a chance to find out if there is any adult who is good. Because we cannot modify the home situation, we must do our utmost to make the nursery school experience as good as possible. Our problem, of course, is control of the anxiety generated in school; we must accept the child's home generated anxiety as part of him.

There is the child who comes to school with so much anxiety and aggressive hostility that he is a menace to others and requires all the attention one adult can give. If such a child does not show improvement after one month under the school's best efforts, he should not be kept on the rolls. It is not fair to the other children or to the teachers to keep such a child. This is not to be interpreted as a condemnation of the child or as saying that he could not be reached by special treatment or psychotherapy. It is only to say that the nursery school cannot be set up to take care of such extreme behavior anomaly.

Selected Reading

Allen, Frederick H., M.D., *Psychotherapy With Children.* New York, W. W. Norton and Company, 1942.

The author, who treats children in the Child Guidance Clinic of Philadelphia, states that the therapy he recommends is his own variety. The book is not easy to read, but it is stimulating to teachers who have a background of other reading as preparation.

Axline, Virginia Mae, *Play Therapy.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947.

This is one of the latest and finest books on our subject. Teachers will enjoy reading this fascinating account of "nondirective play therapy" and be interested to learn how it differs from other play therapy.

Black, Irma S., *Off to a Good Start.* New York, Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1946.

A recent book revealing dynamic insight of a teacher who has good feeling for children and parents. It is popularly written, but sound.

Cameron, Norman A., *The Psychology of Behavior Disorders, A Biosocial Interpretation.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947.

A technical but readable book on psychology and psychiatry from which teachers can learn how normal behavior breaks over into abnormal. Many psychiatric terms that teachers should know are well defined and illustrated.

Dixon, C., Madeleine, *High, Wide, and Deep: Discovering The Pre-school Child.* New York, John Day Company, 1938.

An intuitive teacher describes how a group of children behaved in a special school situation. Imaginative and suggestive.

Dreikurs, Rudolph, *The Challenge of Parenthood.* New York, Duell, Sloan, and Pearce, 1948.

The latest and by far the best book on how to handle children. A "must" book for teachers, who can very highly recommend it to parents.

English, O. Spurgeon, M.D., and Gerald H. J. Pearson, M.D., *Common Neuroses of Children and Adults.* New York, W. W. Norton and Company, 1937.

These authors seem to be writing about abstractive more than about living children. Teachers are likely to be alienated from the psychoanalytic approach by this book, which is not recommended.

Evans, Elida, *The Problem of the Nervous Child.* New York, Dodd, Mead and Company, 1922.

This work appeared twenty years too early to be appreciated. Theoretical Jungian concepts and practical application to childhood are simply and interestingly written. This little book is worth dozens of others on child psychology.

Freud, Anna, *Psychoanalysis for Teachers and Parents.* New York, Emerson, 1935.

Anna Freud is the founder of child analysis. In this little book she states briefly what implications of psychoanalysis are of value to teachers and parents. It is definitely a helpful book.

Freud, Anna, *The Psycho-Analytical Treatment of Children.* London, Imago Publishing Company, 1947.

This is a technical account of the process of child analysis and is not especially useful to teachers.

Groves, Ernest R., and Gladys H. Groves, *Wholesome Childhood,* revised edition. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924.

An old, but very readable and sympathetic interpretation of child behavior for parents and teachers.

Hendrick, Ives, M.D., *Facts and Theories on Psychoanalysis.* New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1934.

This explanation of the structure and meaning of psychoanalytic theories is meant for the layman. While not easy to read, it is clearly written and by no means too technical for the interested nursery school teacher. It has an excellent glossary.

Lewis, Nolan D. C., M.D., and Bernard L. Pacella, M.D., (eds.) *Modern Trends in Child Psychiatry.* New York, International University Press, 1946.

This is a collection of papers by various Freudian writers, most of which are too technical for teachers. Other works of two of the contributors, Ribble and Levy, are given in this list.

Merrill, Maud A., *Problems of Child Delinquency.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947.

A careful account of a study of delinquents showing types of tests used to measure various aspects of personality and how delinquents compare with non-delinquents.

Powdermaker, Florence, M.D., and Louise Ireland Grimes, *Children in the Family*. New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1940.

A popular book written with psychoanalytic insight but with a very unfortunate attitude toward discipline and punishment.

Thom, Douglas A., M.D., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1927.

A book that is now considered out of date, but was once highly rated. Still very readable and not really outdated because of its dynamic insight. Compares very favorably, with certain exceptions, to later books because of its understanding approach to child behavior.

Wandling, Arilita Roberts, compiler, *Ten Behavior Problems Common with Pre-School Children*. New York, House of Field, 1939.

Quotations from various authors on how to deal with misbehavior. Contains some appallingly bad advice (see pages 248-250) on eating problems. While some good authors are quoted, out of context the material loses value.

15

Nutrition and Eating Situations

THE NUTRITIONAL STATE of a child depends not only upon the food he eats, but also upon the amount of his daily sleep, the kind of exercise he gets, and his general emotional state. However, in this chapter we will discuss only the eating situation in our nursery schools. The procedures we now use are the same as those developed in the Vallejo schools. At this writing the author has observed them in action many hundreds of times involving a thousand different children. Like all our other procedures they were not thought up to fit some theory, but were arrived at by trial and error.

Beyond the basic purpose of feeding the children, the object of the lunch period is to teach them to eat a reasonable variety of foods in optimum amounts, and to enjoy eating. The object is not to have them clean their plates at the price of emotional distress, nor is it to have them just taste to satisfy the teacher's need to feel that she is in control. For a good eating situation in the nursery school three things are necessary: the right foods, well cooked; good serving and eating procedures; and teachers' understanding of children's eating difficulties.

Many school systems have on their staff a nutritionist who plans menus and does the major portion of the food buying. However, for single schools or small groups of schools, a nutritionist is a luxury. There are a number of good books which teachers can consult for making up menus. Also, state and local groups provide nutritional consultants who will be glad to help a teacher faced with the responsibility of planning menus and of supervising the

marketing. In the Golden Gate Nursery Schools the supervisor makes the menus. All the schools have the same menu for the same day. To simplify matters and to reduce expense, we rotate a set of four weekly menus, repeating the menus every fourth week. This does not seem to be too monotonous, and it provides the stability which children like.

Many problems are involved in making nursery school menus. First of all, the expense and availability of foods must be considered. Other factors to be remembered are that marketing and delivery service varies from school to school; that the limitations in the size of the stove, the ice box, and the storage space exclude certain combinations of dishes; that the cook's ability to prepare foods also has certain limitations; that the color combinations of foods have some effect on eating; and last but not least that proper nutritional combinations must be maintained. The menus given in the appendix are examples of actual menus made to meet all the varying conditions encountered in the Golden Gate Nursery Schools.

Well-planned menus must be well cooked if children are to find them appetizing. This does not mean that the foods have to be highly seasoned — rather, the opposite. Few condiments belong in nursery school cooking. To insure uniform and reliable preparation of foods the school cookbook gives exact recipes and instructions. Such a cookbook is invaluable when a teacher or housekeeper must prepare the food because of the cook's absence. Our recipes are also given in the Appendix to illustrate how such a cookbook may be compiled.

Eating Set-up and Procedures

The eating techniques and procedures involve all that happens from the time the children get ready for lunch until they leave the table. The methods we use are here described and explained in great detail because each step is essential to a smooth lunch period.

The children go to the toilet to empty the bladder and wash hands before eating. Those who "don't have to go" or say their hands are not dirty should be told, "We always wash before we eat." However, germs should not be mentioned because it is difficult to explain what they are without causing unnecessary anxiety. If each child went directly from the washroom to the table, those

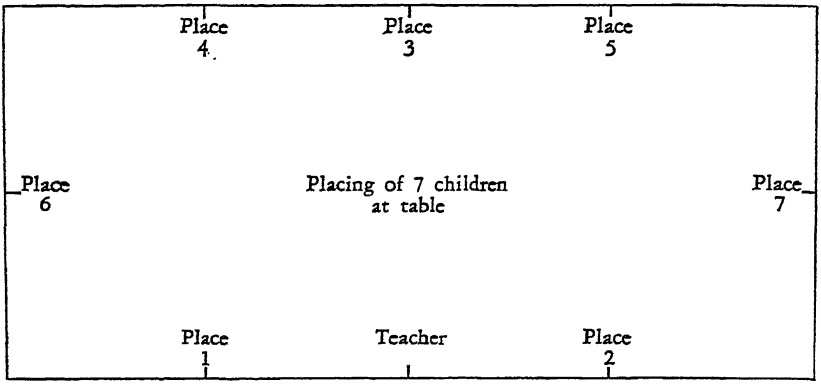
who washed first would have to sit quietly at the table and wait until all the other children were ready to eat. This would cause an undesirable restraint upon those children. If the children who wash for lunch first were allowed to go back to play, their hands would get dirty again, and their play would have to be disrupted once more to bring them to the tables. It is therefore necessary to provide an interim activity. Since the period before lunch should be a quiet one, a story or music period is very suitable for this purpose.

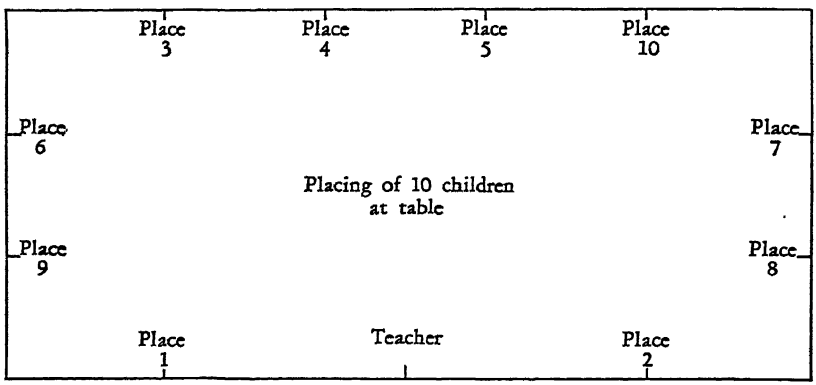
The story period has proved a practical and pleasant routine for the time between handwashing and going to the table for lunch. Two or three story groups are needed to accommodate thirty children as they come from the toilet room; otherwise some of them will hear only a part or the end of the story. Having two or three groups gives the children a choice of situations, develops the ability of more teachers to tell the stories, and prevents any group from becoming too large for one teacher to handle. Where all ages are in one room the children must be guided to the proper age group. These pre-lunch story groups, in which the children sit on the floor, should be located so that they do not interfere with the carts of food being rolled up to the tables.

Going to the tables from the story groups should not be a harum-scarum affair. The situation prevailing at lunchtime provides four teachers for thirty children, who will be seated at three tables. The room teacher should announce to the story groups that lunch is ready. This may be done in one of several ways. The room teacher may call each child by name and direct him to his table; she may send each story group as a whole to the tables; she may ask each teacher to call the names of the children who sit at her table regardless of which story group they are in; or she may simply announce that lunch is ready without more specific directions. Some of the very young children may have to be led by the hand to their proper places. The degree of familiarity of teachers and children with each other and with the daily routine will determine the amount of more specific instruction needed. At this time new teachers should be told by the room teacher where they are to sit; so should old teachers, if there is any change in previous arrangements. The object of this guidance by the room teacher is the avoidance of confusion, noise, and fighting over certain preferred places at the tables.

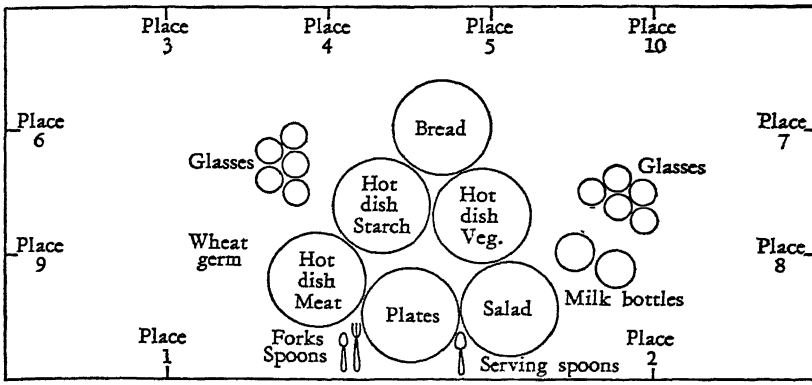
The tables should be placed far enough apart so that the children do not bump each other as they pull out their chairs to sit down. Placing the children at the table needs thought and attention for which the room teacher should take responsibility. First of all, the child should sit at a table that fits his size. Next, consideration should be given to placement according to the amount of help needed by a child – the teacher can give the most help to the two children sitting next her. Combinations of children who distract or disturb each other should also be kept in mind. Sometimes the attendance is low, and only two tables are set instead of three; then children cannot be kept at regular places. Some fighting over the seats next to the teacher is inevitable. Care must be taken not to give in too much to any child, and at the same time not to ruin the appetite of some youngster who is determined to sit by the teacher or by a certain child. To give regular places at the table is a good general practice; but room teachers must take into account teacher-child conflicts and affinities in this arrangement. Because of the turnover of children, there is not much likelihood that the social contacts at table will be restricted by giving each child a definite place; but should this be so, new arrangements can be made from time to time. There is no need to try to break up friendships that persist over a time unless they have disturbing effects on the children. Teachers may also take turns at each other's tables. It is good to have a teacher become familiar with all the children; yet it is also desirable to have each teacher know a certain number of them especially well as a result of her repeated experiences with the same children day after day.

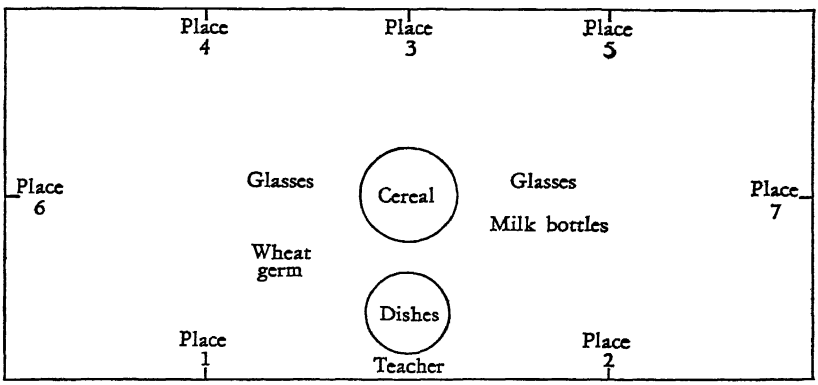
In the following diagrams, optimal arrangement of the seating at table is shown. Placing the children as near as possible to the teacher's reach is the aim. If there are only five children at the table and a child insists upon sitting at the end instead of on the side, let him do so even though it would be somewhat simpler for the teacher if he sat opposite her. If chairs are properly placed, children tend to go to the right places. To someone the responsibility is assigned to see that the chairs are placed properly at the table according to the number of children to be served. The extra chairs are removed from the table to a convenient place near-by. The head teacher gives to the cook and the housekeeper, well in advance of lunch, the number of persons who will sit at each table that day.





The placing of the children at the tables has much to do with a smooth and pleasant eating period. These diagrams show optimal seating arrangements at a 3- by 6-foot table. The first and second places are next to the teacher since these are the ones most preferred by the children. The third, fourth, and fifth places are opposite the teacher, and are the next easiest for her to reach. The sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth places are at the table ends, and the tenth goes on one side. No more than two children should ever sit on the same side as the teacher, no more than two on an end, and no more than four on the side opposite the teacher. Left-handed children should sit at places one, six, eight, or ten. Room teachers see that chairs are properly placed at the tables to take care of each day's enrollment before the children are called to lunch, so that no children need be moved after they have already found places.





These diagrams show the food placed on the tables so that it is convenient for the teacher to serve the children. It is important for housekeepers to set the tables exactly as shown so that the teachers will not have to rearrange dishes before serving. Because of the number of bowls on the table at lunch, there is not room enough to put all the milk bottles and glasses on one side; therefore, the glasses are divided. In order to assure even distribution of the cream, the milk bottles should always be shaken by the housekeepers when they put them on the carts, again when they put them on the tables, and also by the teachers as they pour the milk. If possible, homogenized milk should be used, but in any case, top milk should never be poured off onto the cereal. For sanitary reasons, milk is served directly from bottles to glasses.

It is the room teacher's job to check and see that each child is properly seated with his feet on the floor before he begins to eat, and that he maintains a comfortable posture throughout the lunch period. When the room teacher is not free to circulate during lunch because she must serve a table herself, each teacher is responsible for posture at her own table. To avoid getting up from the table, she may ask the housekeeper to straighten the chair of a child. It is important that she remain seated during the entire lunch period if at all possible.

Whenever more than one teacher is sitting at a table, the extra teacher sits opposite the serving teacher, unless she is asked to sit near some child who needs special help. The extra teacher or student teacher will stay with the group to which she is assigned unless there is a scarcity of teachers in another room. The extra teacher is usually the one who gets up from the table when necessary. Teachers and children do not go to the carts or to the kitchen for food; the housekeepers always bring it to the table. Extra teachers do not serve the milk because the regular teacher knows which children to serve first and which later. By delaying a little for the child who gulps his milk first, she can encourage new habits without unduly withholding.

Paper napkins are used for all except the two-year-olds, who have terry-cloth bibs. Because bibs are hard to get and expensive to keep properly laundered and boiled, it is advisable to teach the proper use of paper napkins at an early age. This is not easy, but it can be done. When the children have finished eating, they can wipe their faces and hands with the napkins and drop them in the waste basket on their way from the tables to the toilet, or leave them on the table.

Serving and Eating

Serving the food on the plates should be done promptly by the teacher without creating an atmosphere of hurry. Too leisurely a manner at this time requires too much patience on the part of the last children served, especially when children are very young. The slow eater or the restless child is usually served first. The food is served from the bowls on to one plate at a time and handed directly to the child or placed on the table in front of him. It should not be shoved along the table. If the teacher's arm is too short to reach

the farthest child, let an intervening child pass the plate while remaining seated. Children should not get up to come for their plates since this causes too much confusion. Second and subsequent servings are made by having the child hand his plate to the teacher, or she may reach across the table and put the spoonful of food from the bowls on the plate. It is our practice to let one child pass the napkins and another the forks while the teacher is serving. We teach the children to handle the forks without touching the prongs, and they enjoy this opportunity to develop muscular coördination. Where the children are too young to use forks, it is best for the teacher to place the spoon on the plate as she serves each one. Having the spoons placed on the table in advance usually results in spoon rapping on the table before all are served; more skill than average teachers have is required to prevent this. Spoons for dessert are passed just before dessert is served. Having the children set the table is not suitable with this method of serving, and it is also difficult to supervise with the large pupil ratio.

The plate service consists of a standard portion of the protein, the starch, and cooked vegetable, and the salad. A rounded tablespoonful is a standard portion. Where these foods are combined, as in stews, the standard amount served is somewhat less than the amount of four tablespoons. If the teacher knows a child will eat more, it is permissible to put more on the plate with the first serving. We use the standard portion because the serving teacher often does not know the eating habits of the children at her table. Since we do not insist that a child clean his plate, no resentment is engendered in the child by having a disliked food put on his plate, especially as he sees that all children are treated in the same fashion. Later the teacher automatically serves herself a portion of everything and eats a portion at least of everything she has served herself. To reduce or omit a portion upon a child's request is likely to start an epidemic of refusals. It also may confirm a child's belief that he permanently dislikes a food when in reality the dislike is only temporary. We have often seen children enjoy eating foods that they had asked to have omitted from their plates. We always suggest tasting all foods, but do not insist that the child actually do so. When a protest is made over the serving of an objectionable food, we always say "You don't have to eat it, just leave it on your plate." We never argue the subject. If the child cries in despair, we re-

assure him by telling him that he doesn't even have to taste it, but that it is a nursery school rule to give everyone the same lunch.

The bread should not be put on the plate, nor should the raw vegetable sticks except for the two-year-olds. Wheat germ the children serve themselves by passing the bowl from child to child. They may take as little as they wish and as much as two teaspoonfuls. When three children have received their first food serving, the teacher asks someone to pass the bread by walking around the table. When he is through, another child serves the raw vegetable sticks. Always have the child first stand up and come around to you, then hand him the forks, napkins, bread, or whatever is to be passed around. Some children have not yet developed the coördination necessary to get up from the chair and hold an object at the same time; therefore, a uniform practice for this contingency will prevent much spilling. Also teach the one who passes the bread to take his piece after he has handed the plate back to the teacher. When he tries to lay it at his place as he passes, he often spills. If the children are upset for any reason or disorderly, the teacher herself should (without getting up) pass the bread and vegetable sticks. However, this will be an infrequent occurrence, for most children like the job of passing. The teacher selects those who do the passing, and care must be taken to see that everybody gets his turn, although not as a reward for good behavior. No child should ever be urged or made to pass anything.

The milk is served after the plates are served and the bread and vegetable sticks have been passed once. The teacher then pours the milk and sets before each child not less than a standard serving of milk, which is six ounces for two-year-olds and seven ounces for the other children. The two-year-olds spill from a full glass. When the milk is served, the teacher serves her own plate and begins to eat. Meanwhile the children have been allowed to begin eating, each as he was served. (We do not say grace before meals because it is too difficult without considerable pressure and regimentation to get so many children quiet for an exact minute.) The milk is given together with the plate service so that the child may satisfy any urgent thirst, but it is never served ahead of the plate food. We do not want him to fill his stomach with milk only to lose his appetite for his vegetables. However, the milk is never withheld until he has eaten his plate foods. The reason for serving the bread,

the milk, and the plate foods at one time is that this practice gives leeway for eating the favorite food first. Seconds of milk should never be withheld if the child has eaten a fair part of the food on his plate.

Even the youngest child can be taught to enjoy the proper use of the piece of bread as a pusher. Using the word "pusher" for the first piece of bread helps remind the children that they will not be permitted to fill up on seconds of bread, and several pieces of bread should rarely be given unless the plate food has been eaten and the milk completely consumed. Raw vegetable sticks may be passed a second time, or as often as necessary to empty the serving dish, or until all children refuse any more. Two-year-olds, however, must be restricted as to the quantity of raw foods. When carrot sticks are small, the older children may take more than one at a time. The repeated passing of bread and vegetable sticks gives every child an opportunity to get up from the table for a legitimate purpose.

We take plenty of time for lunch. A full twenty minutes is allowed for consuming the plate service; ordinarily a full thirty minutes is allowed for eating the plate service, the bread, and the milk before the dessert is given. When a child has finished eating his plate service — and this does not necessarily mean that his plate is empty — he should hand his plate to the teacher. She accepts it if she does not expect him to eat any more; but she should not accept plates that are not empty unless twenty minutes have elapsed since the child was served. She should never make an issue of failure to eat but should make some mental observation as to whether or not she thinks the failure to eat may be a sign of incipient illness. And she should not let the child get up from the table in less than forty-five minutes unless he has drunk all his milk. No child is ever rushed about eating. So long as he is interested and wants to eat his food, he should be allowed to sit and eat. This may mean sometimes that he is not through until about the time that all the others have been toileted and gone to their cots.

Seconds, thirds, and fourths of any item of the plate service may be given as long as enough is available for equitable distribution. Seconds of any plate service item not only may be given upon request even if all other items have not been eaten but may be offered by the teacher; however, in this case we tend to hold back thirds and fourths of one item to encourage the eating of a variety.

Exceptions may be made in certain problem cases or with new children the first day or two.

The empty plates are taken from the children by the teacher and are placed on top of each other at her place or at a serving table behind her. The forks should be removed and laid on the top plate. The uneaten food should be lightly scraped off the plates to the top plate (but not into empty serving bowls) so that the plates can be safely piled for housekeepers to remove. This process of scraping dishes at the table is not esthetically desirable, but it does seem to be functionally necessary and teachers can learn to do it with a finesse that keeps it from being an offensive process. The cook finishes scraping the plates in the kitchen or at the food carts. The amount of scraping at the table should be just enough to enable the plates to be safely stacked. The housekeeper removes empty milk bottles, serving dishes, and those plates which have been accepted by the teacher. Housekeepers should never take away an empty plate from a child, because it is the teacher who decides when a child has finished, and who knows when to encourage seconds for an empty plate.

The teacher signals for the housekeeper to bring the dessert when half or more of the children have finished the plate service, or after twenty minutes have elapsed since serving. It is usually time to serve the dessert soon after all the children have received as many servings of the plate service foods as they want, provided a full twenty minutes have elapsed since the first food was served. The serving bowls are removed from the table before the dessert bowls and dishes are placed on the table, and before all the children's plates have been accepted by the teacher. *No seconds of desserts are ever given and no child is ever deprived of his dessert for any reason at all.* This means that the teacher must distribute the bowl's contents in even servings and she should not do this by spreading out all the dishes first. Serve one dish at a time. She is not required to put all of the dessert from the bowl into the sauce dishes if there is too much. Whatever remains should be sent back to the kitchen. Needless to say, liberal servings should be made when there is plenty of dessert, but the rule should be strictly followed that no seconds are given. If seconds were to be given of dessert, some children would dawdle over the other food and then fill up on dessert. Also, slow eaters could not compete with fast

ones for seconds and would lose out unless there were dessert in unlimited quantity. This would be expensive if eaten and wasteful if not eaten. The dessert is an important part of the balanced diet of the menu and should never be withheld; but it should not be given in amounts out of proportion to the other foods. The child who has eaten poorly of his plate service, might theoretically be given a little more dessert for he needs the calories. However, this would be noticed by the children and cause comment, for, try as we will to counteract its reputation, dessert is always a favored food. If, because of an oversupply of dessert seconds were given on one particular day, there would be clamors for seconds the following day; hence the rule never to give seconds. The teacher can send the dessert bowl off the table as soon as all are served if its presence makes someone too unhappy. Dessert dishes and milk glasses may be left at the places for the housekeeper to clear away or given to the teacher to pile in front of her. Dessert may be served and eaten before all the milk is drunk, but the child is expected to sit at the table for forty-five minutes or until all others are ready for bed, if his milk glass is not empty. Milk is never poured on the dessert. The teacher can moisten the dessert in the serving bowl with milk from the bottle if it needs it, but this should preferably be done in the kitchen.

A recapitulation in different words of this lengthy description of the lunch procedure may be helpful. The children are directed to places at the table after the food has been properly placed on the table by the housekeepers. The teacher asks one child to pass the napkins, another one to pass the forks, and then she serves the plate foods to each child, putting not less than one rounded tablespoonful of each food on each plate. She hands each child his plate or sets it in front of him. After the napkin and fork passers have sat down, another child is asked to pass the pieces of bread or pushers. This goes on while the teacher is still serving plates. When the child who passes the bread is finished, or almost so, another child passes the vegetable sticks if there are any. When the plates are all served, the teacher pours milk for all, serves her own plate, and begins to eat. Second and third servings are given as requested with use of some discretion. When a child has eaten all the food of the first serving, he may give his plate to the teacher. She does not accept a plate containing uneaten food until twenty minutes have elapsed,

but she does not then gather up all plates. Any child who wants more time may have forty minutes in which to eat his plate service. Dessert is served at the tables from a serving bowl into dishes which are handed to each child after his plate has been accepted and before all the milk is drunk if the child requests it. Children are kept at the table forty-five minutes unless the milk is all drunk, but not longer than thirty minutes for the purpose of eating dessert and plate foods. Dessert is never withheld from any child for any reason. Children leave the table only when the teacher gives permission to do so and direction as to where to go.

The Morning and Afternoon Meal Periods

The procedure for the morning cereal period is based on the same pattern as the lunch. However, an exception is made in the matter of going directly from the toilet to the table because the number of children in attendance is usually smaller and there is no extra teacher to arrange a story period. If the children were permitted to begin any activities, it would be difficult to get them back to the table. A child passes the napkins and the spoons, and the teacher serves the cereal and milk just as she does at lunch. Each child must get a serving of at least one tablespoon of cereal. The dishes can be left at their places for the housekeeper or cook to clear up. The children do not leave the table without specific instructions from the teacher as to where they go next and what they do, whether it be to indoor or outdoor activities.

The afternoon nourishment period is necessary because most of our children will have a late supper and need something between lunch and supper. The cookies or crackers that go with the milk are an additional bit of nourishment and a kind of treat that children look forward to. Each child should receive four ounces of milk, no more, no less, and only one large or medium-sized cookie or graham cracker. This will keep them from getting too hungry, but will not spoil their appetites for supper. Children do not usually care for more than four ounces of milk at this time, and so there is no resentment about not having a full glass.

In nursery schools where children do not stay for lunch, great ceremony is usually made of the juice period. The children sit at the table and pass the napkins and cookies, thus getting some of

the experience that our children get at the morning cereal and lunch periods. In our case the object at this time is only to see that the children get nourishment without confusion and spilling. In nice weather it is good to have it outside when everyone is up and out and all teachers are in the yard. This avoids spilling crumbs inside and also having to bring all the children back inside again. It is better to have them gather at one time and sit down in a row or a group, but if there are no seats or boxes for this, the children can come informally to a service table. This is not so desirable, however, because someone may be overlooked; and if they all come, there may be pushing and confusion. When nourishment is served inside, it is best to have the children sit at the tables or sit in a group while both the cookie and milk are consumed, not wander around the room eating.

Afternoon nourishment is served by the teacher, who finds it ready on a tray prepared by the cook or housekeeper. The cracker or cookie is served after the milk is drunk; although it should not be withheld if the milk is not drunk after ten or fifteen minutes. Seconds are not allowed. If juice is served and some is not used because the cook has prepared too much, it should be returned to the kitchen where it can be used up in fruit cups or cooking. It should not be divided among the teachers, and it would be unfair to give some children seconds and not others; seconds for all are too expensive. A child who drops or spills his allotment should have it replaced. Children who go home before the hour of serving nourishment go without it. Confusion and neglect of other children sometimes result from trying to get it for a child who is leaving early. A parent who wants the child to have this nourishment should wait until it has been served in the regular manner before calling for the child. When the child leaves too early for nourishment, or comes too late for cod-liver oil, the parent's attention should be called to this omission in his diet.

Cod-liver oil is not given at breakfast because the children arriving later will not be present to receive it. Each child gets two "teaspoonfuls"; however, the spoons are not really full because spilling is smelly, and should be avoided if possible. Again, the line-up of children insures every child's being served quickly while the teacher goes from one to the other with the oil. Each child can then get his juice from the tray, drink it, put the empty glass back

on the tray, and run back to his play. Needless to say, no effort is made to have them all drink at one moment. The teacher calls out juice time, and when nearly all are ready, she begins to serve. For large attendance this takes two teachers – one for oil and one to supervise the juice tray and the children's coming and going. A glass of soapy water should be on hand to receive the used spoons. For obvious reasons, children are never served from one spoon.

The Family Style Meal

Ideas can be learned from books, but their translation into action must come through practice. The merits of the above-given lunch procedure can be judged only on the basis of experience. It should not be evaluated just from reading about it; it should be observed in any of a number of schools, where it is now practiced. This family style service has not yet been widely used by other schools, but it seems to have several advantages over other methods. Some of these advantages deserve a more detailed discussion.

When the food is served on the plates before the children sit down, it is likely to be cold unless teachers are taken away from the children to help the cook or housekeeper serve it quickly. If a child must get up to go to a serving table for seconds, too many children are likely to be up at one time, and if seconds are in bowls at each table, the firsts might as well be. When someone comes around to put seconds on plates, she cannot be at all places at the right psychological moment for each child's seconds and thirds on every item. This method is also institutional and not homelike. If children line up cafeteria style, service is too slow for thirty children unless there are two service centers. If the teachers control this, they are not at the eating tables; if cooks do the serving, they are teaching as we understand the term.

When dessert in individual dishes is set out on a table in the room before lunch, it takes too much table space and it is on the children's minds, whereas dessert served from bowls at the table is out of sight and out of mind until almost all have finished the plate service. There is a great traffic problem with everyone hopping up to get his dessert, a rushing to get first choice or a possible larger serving, the picking out of which often causes a child much deliberation. Also, there is a tendency to rush the meal. A slow

eater who sees a fast one get up and take his plate away to get dessert will often insist that he, too, is through; whereas, if the fast eater has no edge on him for getting a bigger dessert, he will continue to eat with no competitive worry. It is also easier to have the child's plate kept in front of him the full twenty minutes if he must give it to the teacher when he is finished. Although the teacher might try to keep him from getting up before twenty minutes, she would have a hard time doing this. Two ideas dominate the reasoning back of the get-up-and-serve-yourself procedure. One is that a child gets too restless sitting through a meal and should be given a chance to get up for a purpose; the other is that he learns to carry a plate of food without spilling. Yet, it should be noted that he does not usually get restless if he has a chair of the right height to sit in and a table of the right height to sit at. Also, he can get up once or oftener under the family style procedure since napkins, forks, spoons, bread, and raw vegetables have to be passed. Lunch should not be a time of everybody's moving about. The passing gives the children the experience of carrying plates of food — not of course with such frequency as does carrying the individual plates. There is also the advantage that it cannot be turned into a little social game, because it is too closely under the teacher's control. She can speak to the child without calling across the room. For inexperienced or untrained teachers, the family style seems to give them at least the security of staying in their seats during lunch with the children doing likewise. They do not cause her the same amount of trouble as when they are allowed to move about during lunch. She is also responsible only for those at her table, and they are instructed only by her instead of by two or more teachers.

Behavior Problems in Eating

Unless teachers understand some of the emotional difficulties which children have regarding the eating situation, behavior problems at the lunch table will be numerous. In Chapter 7 brief mention was made of the various reasons why eating troubles develop in young children. It is the function of the nursery school to create an atmosphere that counteracts any bad attitudes on the part of the children and not to let new ones develop. This is not easy. However, it is well known that the group situation in itself

is beneficial for correcting the bad eating habits a child has already acquired. If the teacher can always remember that the group behavior is more important than that of any individual, half her battle over bad eating habits is already won. When most of the children at a table eat well, there is no need to worry about one or two who do not. To fuss or nag at them would jeopardize the good responses of the others. If most of the children at a table do not eat well, while one or two consume heartily, then something is wrong with either the food or the teaching situation.

To see other children eat with enjoyment will do more to stimulate a poor appetite than anything else. The first requirement of a lunch teacher is that she be able to demonstrate that eating is something to be enjoyed by all, never to be looked upon as a duty or a misery. Children can be made to eat but teachers should neither think nor act in such terms. Research has shown that food eaten under compulsion may be of limited nutritional value to children because it is not properly absorbed. Certainly forced feeding is psychologically damaging to them. Therefore we never force or urge children to eat. The child's desire to eat is the factor which controls the amount he consumes, and we try in various ways to induce healthy appetites and desires, but we do not strive to increase food consumption as an end in itself. Nothing improves a poor appetite so much as removing all pressure from the child. Therefore, our teachers not only refrain from admonishings, but they see to it that the children do not press one another in this regard. We act on the assumption that it is normal to eat, and on the knowledge that children never die because of a refusal to eat, and few get sick as a result of food rejection. We even make no effort to find out why a given child does not eat; we simply do all we can to set the stage for our meals in such a fashion that eating becomes a joy and pleasure to everybody.

Our eating procedure does not mean that we let the children do as they please, as can readily be seen from the description of how they are expected to come to, sit at, and go away from the table, to pass certain items of food, to use napkins, pushers and forks, and to conform to other rules. It does mean that we do not stress table manners, use food items as rewards or punishments, send children from the table for misbehavior, remind children of any previous misbehavior, restrict table conversation very much, expect the lunch

hour to be a sample of perfect behavior, or forget that the eating atmosphere must be kept pleasant. These are the very things that parents do to their children at home and that contribute to their bad eating habits and cause their feeding problems

We disapprove of dunking, drinking from dessert dishes, and licking plates. But more than that in the way of good table manners should not be expected of young children. They come later. The teacher says, "Please," and "Thank you," when she speaks to the children or when food is passed to her. Some of the children will naturally imitate her, and these words will frequently be heard at the proper time and in the right spirit. We do not require children to say "Please," and "Thank you," and do not try to teach them to say it apart from setting a good example ourselves. When the child shoves his plate at her and says, "More" or "Gimme more," the teacher should take the plate and say, "Please may I have some more potatoes," or whatever she thinks he wants, and wait for him to repeat this. If he does not, she may ask him if he can repeat what she has said. If he does, she says "That's a good way to ask for more." If he doesn't reply, or repeats his request in the original form, she gives him what he wants without further comment. We never argue over his language; we only make suggestions for improvement and let it go at that. Eventually he will ask politely.

To deprive children of food produces a situation full of emotional dynamite. Second helpings and desserts should never be served as rewards, nor should any food be withheld as punishment for misdemeanor at the table or refusals to eat certain items. Explaining to the child a few general rules about the serving of seconds, and the amounts of bread, milk, and dessert that are allowed will help to counteract his thought that the teacher exercises arbitrary power of control. Of course, there is no need to explain to every child all the reasons for the rules and in some situations it suffices to say, "That's a rule in our nursery school."

If our object is to get the children to eat and enjoy eating, we cannot send them away from the table for misbehaving, because from then on they would not feel comfortable enough to have a desire to eat. It is true that some children eat better when isolated, but poor training will result if the child is conditioned to eat only when he is given special attention. Misbehavior at the table is

usually a protest against a situation in which the child thinks he will be forced to eat, or it is a sign of some other inner distress. The protest can be eliminated only by refraining from the use of any pressure; the distress can certainly not be diminished by sending him away. Furthermore, to send a child from the table and have him eat by himself is not a practical procedure for everyday use because there is rarely enough staff to have someone supervise his private table. Besides, others may imitatively misbehave in order to get away from the unpleasant atmosphere that the incident has created at the group table. The teacher may be asked by more than one child, "Why don't you send me away? You sent Johnny," and forced into difficult explanations. In case of very disrupting behavior, it is better to have a child change places with one sitting next to the teacher or with a child seated at another table. Ordinarily this method is quite effectual in letting the child know that his behavior does not meet with approval, and it is safer for preserving his appetite.

It seems almost unnecessary to say that reminding a child of some previous misbehavior while he is eating may be enough to ruin his appetite or to make him misbehave again. Yet teachers are known to do such things. If a previous misdeed is brought up by one of the children, the teacher should say something to make the offender comfortable rather than resentful, because for a good eating situation, it is important to keep everyone in good humor.

Children are not in good humor if they are not allowed to talk. However, the lunch table conversation must not get so exciting that the children are distracted from the business of eating. Sometimes it is necessary to stop all conversation for a minute or so but not for longer. It is necessary to break up verbal repetitions of two-year-olds before the entire group produces an ensemble result that is too disrupting. Often the sulky or withdrawn child will pick up his spoon and eat if his teacher asks him a pleasant question about his morning's play and thus diverts his mind from what is bothering him and does not allow him to eat.

A perfect lunch situation is either very good or very bad when viewed for its educational merit. When children sit quietly and properly and eat everything on their plates, either they have been cowed or they are comfortably themselves. The difference can readily be told by the expressions on their faces and that of the

teacher. It should be obvious that the undesirable perfect lunch cannot be achieved under our type of discipline. The desirable type of perfect lunch results only where the personnel has been a stable group for quite a long period. This we seldom have, therefore we do not usually have perfection at lunch any more than we have it at other periods of the day. As a rule there is some spilling, some failure to eat, and some misbehavior.

Eating Habits

Children vary greatly in the skill with which they feed themselves. Since some of this variation is due to physical and some to psychological causes, it is best to make as few comments as possible about a child's awkwardness or spilling. If the cause is poor motor coördination, only time and encouragement will help. If the cause is psychological, nagging only aggravates the condition. We do not let a child clean up a mess he has spilled because this is too much fun and conducive to repeated offenses. Ordinarily, children do not imitate the bad behavior of one child at the table unless there is general resentment against the teacher, in which case scolding and correcting do little good. If one or two children misbehave or do not eat well, too much attention should not be paid them. If most of the children misbehave or do not eat well, the fault is in the teaching situation. Sometimes it is a carry-over from a poor morning, and not much can be done about it. One common nursery school problem that we have almost completely eliminated is having the children getting up from the table and running around. This is no doubt largely due to the fact that our chairs and tables have the correct heights for real physical comfort.

"Rome was not built in a day," and neither are bad eating habits corrected in a short time unless their cause is very superficial or due to an environmental factor such as the child's inability to eat in the presence of his mother. With her, he may have developed this as his method of demonstrating his power, but with his teachers he may use other methods, or he may not feel impelled to give any such drastic demonstrations because the nursery school offers him enough opportunity to express his will in a legitimate fashion. We try to be patient and we rely upon the group psychology for therapeutic effects, and hope to create the proper group behavior by

adherence to our rules and by the careful execution of our lunch time techniques and procedures. The main things to remember are: don't try to make a child eat; avoid tensions and scenes; never give or take away food as a reward or punishment; and keep the atmosphere cheerful.

Teachers for whom these rules represent a new approach often have difficulty because they feel as if they had lost their control of the situation. What happens is that the teacher abdicates instead of redirecting her authoritative influence. She not only stops forcing the children to eat; she goes further and unconsciously encourages attitudes of refusal to eat. Since no rewards are considered proper for a clean plate, she even withholds a smile when the child hands his to her. This is going too far in the opposite direction, for quiet, casual words of approval and disapproval from the teacher are needed — and a good many smiles and pleasant looks. Excessive praise is not good because it may convey to the child a necessity to eat in order to get the teacher's approval. Friendly reminders to the extent that there is still milk in the child's glass are very different from nagging remarks. It is impossible to express in written words just what the teacher should say, for the actual words are not so important as the tone of voice. A teacher can say, "Drink your milk, Betty," in such a tone that her remark is a welcome suggestion to the child; but a teacher can also say the same words in such a way as to make Betty spill her milk on the table in an angry gesture, or solemnly begin to sip it because she dares not do otherwise. Any sensitive, sensible teacher knows all this, but many teachers are afraid of withdrawing the pressure to make children eat. And when they try to do so, they seem to lose their good sense. A great deal of what we do in nursery school is not so much a matter of what we do, but of how we do it. And yet, to say that the what is unimportant would be very misleading. Because all teachers do the same mechanical things at the lunch table, the child has no opportunity to get into personal battles over his eating problems. And since every child is treated alike and at the same time in a fashion so different from the customary eating discipline in the home, the children cannot easily carry over into the nursery school their home battles about food and eating. They know that rules govern the teachers' behavior, and they accept this. If the teacher

enforces the rules in a pleasant way, they not only accept her but they will like her. To be a good teacher is to be liked, and vice versa. Liking the teacher is first aid to a poor appetite.

Selected Reading

See first four books of Bibliography for Chapter 1.

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Health

THE NURSERY SCHOOL should have a constructive influence upon the health of the children and the community. Good medical supervision is one of the basic requirements for good health, and a qualified physician must be on the staff or available for consultation. A balanced daily program which provides the children with rest, food, and play, for body and spirit, forms the foundation of the nursery school hygiene. The prevention of disease and the promotion of optimum growth of the children are the goals of health practices. This chapter will deal with the rules, precautions, practices and techniques for promoting these ends.

SANITATION

Sanitary considerations come first, and guidance for the development of sanitation comes from the public health department of the city, the county, or the state, or from all three branches. The board of health should certify that the water supply is pure, that the sewage system is satisfactory, and that garbage is properly cared for and disposed of. Inspection for presence of rats, mice, cockroaches and other vermin should be routine, and the services of a professional exterminator secured where the problem is acute. Any near-by places which breed flies should be reported to the board of health. School windows and doors need screens.

Fresh air and light help keep the room a healthy place in which to be, and every nursery school building needs adequate janitorial

service to keep surfaces clean and free from harmful germs. The floors of the whole school must be swept daily after the children have gone, washed at least every other day, preferably every day. The woodwork, door handles, tables, and chairs must frequently be washed. The toilet bowls, wash basins, and floors need daily washing with water and soap. Towels which are laundered in school should be boiled or otherwise disinfected. Laundry service is preferable for hand towels; blankets need to be dry cleaned. Each newly admitted child gets a clean blanket which is cleaned thereafter as needed. Cooks can boil up the kitchen towels in soapy water during the dishwashing period and then use the soapy water for the daily cleaning of the kitchen floor. Dishwashing with very hot water, good soap, and clean towels for wiping is satisfactory, although air drying is considered better. The dishes used by a child who has been isolated for suspected infection should always be boiled. The kitchen cupboard shelves should be wiped and have fresh paper — newsprint is good — as frequently as is needed to have them fresh and clean. All food must be kept in suitable containers, and the school must have refrigeration facilities.

However, to maintain the building according to the standards of hygiene is only half the health battle. The persons in the building must also be as free from disease as possible. Teachers, children, and parents must follow certain rules of hygiene. The initial health examination of the teacher should cover the following points: general appearance, blood pressure, heart, hearing, and vision. A statement from a physician as to those points should be on file, together with a record of a negative chest X-ray within one year and of a vaccination against smallpox within the preceding three years. Such health examination should be an annual affair for every adult in the nursery school except for the janitor, who does not come into contact with the children. More elaborate physical health records are not only difficult to get but are not necessary. Health blanks which ask, among other things, for a record of venereal infection, typhoid, or mental disease will seldom be reliably filled out, and are therefore not valid. Only a trial working period will tell whether or not a staff member's general mental and physical health are actually good enough. The desirable personality qualities of teachers are listed in the chapter on Staff.

Standards of Health

The pre-admission health examination of the children is another affair. In order to promote the health of the children as well as to prevent disease from spreading in the nursery school, we ask for proof of certain immunizations and for a history of diseases. Our health blank for children is devised to obtain in concise form a record which the school can easily keep and which the child can take with him when he leaves school. The blank provides space for five tuberculin readings, six physical examinations, the history of diseases that the school physician needs to know for individual examination purposes as well as for preventing an epidemic in the school. The blank is simple, easy to read and to fill out; therefore it gets the coöperation of the child's private physician, or of the physician in a public health clinic as well as that of the school physician. No questions regarding health habits are asked because both physicians and parents find such blanks hard to fill out, and some physicians refuse to sign blanks which ask too many questions. Children should not be admitted to school unless they have had at least their first doses of immunization for diphtheria and whooping cough, have been vaccinated against smallpox, and have a record of a negative tuberculin test at the time of admission, or a positive tuberculin test followed by a negative X-ray. If immunization doses must be given, the vaccination may be postponed up to one month. A dental examination should be recommended, but not required, for admission. The health blank is shown in Chapter 19 on page 354.

Children who suffer from blindness, epilepsy, diabetes, certain heart conditions, severe allergies, who have some gross physical defect, or who are feeble-minded, should not be admitted to a regular nursery school, for such children need so many special attentions that a larger, specially trained staff is needed for their care.

By means of the pre-admission health examination and the daily morning health inspection of the children we are able to keep the health of the nursery school on a good level.

Before we discuss the morning health inspection, a few words need to be said about the difference between dirt, disorder, and germs, for, while all three are undesirable in the nursery school, only germs are contagious. A dirty school will have more germs because dirt itself carries a certain amount of them. A disorderly

school will in all probability be a dirty one, too, while an orderly one is not necessarily clean if the surfaces are not washed and disinfected with soap or other disinfectants. A reasonable amount of dirt is healthy, and no amount of scrubbing can keep all germs out of school. However, children have immunity to some types of germs, and during their early school life they build up more immunity as they are exposed to a greater variety of germs. At whatever age children first enter school, they will tend to have more colds because they are being exposed to new germs. In this connection, it should be mentioned that a medical objection to the nursery school *per se* has been that it exposes children to new and numerous germs at too young an age. However, the health record of many nursery schools shows that their germs are largely of the "common cold" type rather than of the communicable diseases. Children are exposed at home, too, to common colds and children's diseases, so we cannot expect the nursery school to be entirely free from infection. However, the school can, by careless morning health inspection and by failure to isolate a sick child, contribute to spreading germs unnecessarily and to causing epidemics. Thus our problem is to prevent as much disorder, dirt, and germ spread as we can.

Certain modern health practices assume that a quantity of individual germs are to be found on all articles handled by a person. Consequently, the use of common drinking glasses, hand towels, combs, and toothbrushes is condemned. In nursery school, we can provide individual drinking glasses and hand towels, but not paint brushes, blocks, beads, clay balls, pegboards, or tricycles. Nor can we go about disinfecting such articles before they are passed from one child to another. It is, therefore, a vital obligation that we exclude from school a child who may be harboring germs that can spread and infect other children. But once a child has been admitted upon the assumption that he is healthy, the presumption that he is not a menace to others must stand as valid until he shows some sign to the contrary. In that event, he must be isolated from the group until he can be called for and taken home by a parent. If a nursery school practices careful morning inspection and conscientious isolation, it can relax about the germs the children give each other as they suck the same toys, spit at each other, or breathe into each other's faces. But if a careful and conscientious job of inspecting

and isolating is not done, then the entire assemblage of children is somewhat of a health menace. The germs that are likely to cause communicable illness are the ones we want to prevent from spreading, but those to which clidren are always exposed we can forget about. In other words, we must not get too germ conscious and yet we must not neglect wise health precautions.

Because we cannot be sure that a child carries no dangerous germs even when he shows no symptoms of illness, we try to reduce all germ spread to a minimum. But this reduction process need not involve procedures which are too difficult to carry out, or which represent an unhealthy mental approach toward the problems of physical health and hygiene. It is not too much trouble to use individual spoons for giving cod-liver oil, or to replace spoons that fall on the floor from the lunch table, or to provide individual cloth towels, paper cups for water, glasses for milk, napkins and bibs that are used only once, and blankets which are stored in individual lockers. These things do not get passed from child to child or misplaced in the wrong child's compartment if lockers and towel racks are marked with individual symbols for the children and with names written out for the teachers.

However, individual combs, toothbrushes, and soap are a lot of trouble; and since they get passed around and misplaced they can become a health hazard. We do not use combs or toothbrushes for this reason and because their use causes delay in the toileting procedure to a degree that is too frustrating. Washcloths which are used more than once are highly unsanitary – they go into a common wash basin, and then come in contact with eyes, nose, and mouth, the very orifices for taking in infection most easily. Furthermore, children love to chew wet washrags, they fall on the floor, and they get into wrong lockers more easily than towels because they must be removed from the hooks for using. Having children wash their hands under a running stream of water and not in a bowl is a more sanitary process. After the hands are clean, the child can get the dirt off his face with his wet hands, or by using a few sheets of toilet paper, and the teacher can help if necessary. In nursery school toothbrushes have a tendency to fall on the floor; the children like to use them to scrub out the wash basin and to play with in the toilet. They are a health menace unless they are kept out of the children's reach and handed to each child, who must

be carefully watched until the brush is used and returned to its place. This process would mean a prohibitive use of teacher time in schools of the type we are discussing, and even so it would not be completely reliable hygienically.

To give the same bed to the same child all the time is not practical because it necessitates the placing of the beds according to a chart which would have to be checked daily for absence. Furthermore, the teachers would not be able to move a child from one part of the room to another without taking his bed along. If enrollment is at capacity, full use of all available floor space must be made, but it is useless to set up a bed regularly in a remote corner space which is used only when there is full attendance. If the beds are covered with washable leatherette and are washed at least once weekly with soap and water, they are no health menace. Leaving three feet or more between beds is no health protection. This practice was recommended when it was hard to get good morning health inspections in all schools. The children are even closer together at lunch and at play, and if they are not well, they should not be kept in the sleep-room. Furthermore, the very idea of separation suggests that no danger of infection exists if the beds are three feet apart; whereas, of course, the danger is there even at three feet if a child is not well. On the other hand, children sleep better if the beds are close together, and if no screens are used. When beds are closer, the capacity of the schools can be increased to the amount of floor space available for beds. Restrictions of enrollment should be based solely upon fire hazard considerations.

Morning Health Inspection

Morning health inspection can be done better by a teacher than by a nurse who performs nothing but that one function for the school. The teacher is in a better position to know the child's regular emotional behavior, normal skin color, eye expression, and posture, all of which may reveal symptoms of illness. She is also able to follow up any suspicions by watching the child's behavior during the next few hours; whereas the nurse who looks at the child and then leaves can give the inspection no such continuity. If the inspection is done by a visiting nurse, the teachers tend to put too much reliance on her special ability and to forget their own responsibility.

The visiting nurse views the morning inspection primarily as a medical procedure and is only secondarily concerned about its educational value, whereas the teachers, knowing that the child's and parent's first contact with the school is the health inspection, and that it is one which often sets the tone for the day, make the most of the situation for educational contact with parents. Teachers who are fully capable of following up with parent or child any measure that may be called for should be assigned for inspecting.

When the morning inspection is done by a full-time nurse, she should be a qualified teacher as well, for if the school leaves all health problems, and only those, to a nurse, usually her mental attitude tends to split the child's health behavior from his other behavior, something which is only administratively possible. The presence of a health-minded person who ignores the educational aspects of behavior is as undesirable as that of an educational-minded teacher who forgets the health aspects of behavior.

Teachers who make health inspection must be trained in all its details. They need to know how red a normal throat is, how flea bites, hives, allergies, chickenpox, and rashes differ in appearance; when a non-running congested nose of a new cold is a possible menace, what kind of a sneeze is not an indication of a cold, how ringworm or scabies looks at an early stage, what sores are suspicious of impetigo, what the first signs of pinkeye are, how nits in the hair look, and when a cough calls for exclusion. All these things she must recognize and distinguish quickly. She must also be able to judge clothing as to cleanliness and suitability, and to make suggestions to the parents concerning improvements. She must be able to pry loose from the child any candy, gum, pennies, or toys that will cause trouble. She must listen patiently to tales of joy or woe from parents and children, and, above all, she must make every child feel that she is glad to see him. All in all, the morning inspection requires considerable skill, and it is important that at least two persons on the staff are in a position to do this work with some finesse.

The actual procedure of inspection comprises a few essential steps which must never be omitted. These are a careful look into the throat with a flashlight, an inspection of as much skin surface as is necessary, and a general sizing up of the child's state of well being. But all these steps must be taken with due regard to his

fears and sensibilities, for the child's mental health is to be considered as much as his physical appearance. Therefore, he must not be rushed or forced during the process of inspection, nor made unnecessarily anxious over any findings which the teacher discusses with the parent. The teacher's first step toward inspection is a warm greeting with word and smile and the extension of her hand. If the child runs up to her and embraces her, she should return the embrace. If he gives her his hand, she can take it in both of hers as she greets him. The important thing is that the inspection proceed with the child's initiation of the process, whether he offers his throat, his hands or just himself as a whole to look at first. Children tend to walk up to the teacher with hands extended and fingers spread apart, or with their mouths opened. Looking between the fingers helps detect any impetigo, scabies, or ringworm. Sweater sleeves should be pushed back to the elbow to make it possible to look for signs of a rash, and overall legs pulled up well above the knees. The children can pull up the overall legs themselves, but the teacher should help with the sleeves. A look down the back of the neck to the shoulder area and down the front of the neck to the chest is also part of the inspection by which any rash is detected. To remove the overalls completely in order to have a look at the whole trunk of the body is necessary only if there is any doubt whether other skin marks are hives or flea bites. The eyes should be carefully observed for any inflammation and the child made to speak enough to enable the teacher to judge the quality of his voice, for a husky or nasal or languid sound can be a possible clue of an oncoming illness. The scalp need not be looked at daily unless there is reason to suspect pediculosis.

In the case where a child absolutely refuses to coöperate with the inspection he is sent on to his group and the teacher tries again later to get him to let her look him over. While this practice may be objectionable from the standpoint of physical health, it is certainly sound for mental health, and it is so rarely necessary as to represent little health hazard to the group. Of course, the child who shows signs of illness even without a thorough inspection must never be allowed into the group. This is very different from letting in a child whose inspection has not been completed. We must never take in a sick child in the morning and promise to keep him for the day in isolation. Even where supervision for such an arrangement

would be available, such practice would be unsound from the standpoint of the child's mental hygiene as well as that of epidemiology. The sick child belongs at home. The problems involved in excluding a child are complicated and they must be handled with both caution and tact.

Since sick children are sometimes brought to school, the children awaiting inspection should not congregate in the hallways for long waits for their inspection. The teachers should see to it that the process is expedited. A parent who wants to talk to the teacher should do so between inspections, and the teacher should not hold up other children and parents for an extended conversation with one parent. If necessary, the parent should be asked to wait or to call back or to telephone. The inspection process can be speedily done if the teachers learn to look sharply and quickly while they are talking and gesturing with an unhurried air. Parents must always wait until their child has passed inspection and not just leave the child on the assumption he will be passed. Whenever a child is excluded, the teacher should wash her hands before examining the next child.

Suspected Illness

Routine isolation of any child who shows signs of oncoming illness will go far toward protecting the health of the group. The common cold is considered most contagious in its earliest stages, and whenever a child shows signs of coming down with a fresh cold, his prompt exclusion from the group is the appropriate measure. Other signs of illness such as headache, vomiting, diarrhea, unusual fatigue, elevated temperature, or any genuine-looking complaint about pain or ill health are sufficient reasons for isolating a child. Although he may not have symptoms of a condition which is communicable, the privacy and rest that isolation provides are usually helpful. When a child does not want to be isolated, there is no need to go through with it unless his symptoms are possibly those of a communicable disease.

The isolation room should have a window so that the child can be supervised and through which the child can see enough so that he does not feel too lonesome. If two children are isolated at one time, a screen goes between the beds to protect the two from each other's germs. A child suspected of a communicable disease or a

cold should be kept in isolation only until the parent can come to get him. One who seems merely to be tired can be allowed to stay in isolation until he wakes up from sleep, and then his mother can be called in case he is not back to normal. As far as possible, the school should not keep a sick child until the end of the day, and the parents must be made to agree in advance of enrollment to come at once if they are called on account of the child's illness. If this policy is strictly adhered to, one isolation bed for twenty-five children is, in our experience, sufficient.

It is difficult to keep a child happy in isolation. Regular school toys and books should not be given. China animals that are too breakable for ordinary use are good isolation toys. They can be sterilized, if necessary, and can be easily washed after every using. The child takes his own blanket into the isolation room, and the bed is washed after use for suspected infection. Teachers should wash their hands in the isolation room after having been with an isolated child.

Children often cry and resist going into isolation, especially if the room is ever used for misbehaving children. Although it is necessary to use the room on rare occasion for a poor sleeper, such use must be kept infrequent, and the room should never be used as a place of punishment. The child who shows symptoms of a communicable disease will have to be isolated, even if he protests, but the teacher can console him and divert his protest by giving him affection and by explaining the reason for isolating, thereby making the child feel he is not shut off or in any way punished. The isolation toys should provide novelty by being different from the regular ones.

Taking a child's temperature need not be a mandatory affair, because it is sometimes difficult to carry out, and a temperature reading is seldom indicated unless other signs of illness are present which in themselves usually warrant isolation and exclusion. However, where the symptoms are indefinite and where a temperature reading can confirm or contradict a suspicion, the temperature should be taken provided the child does not protest violently. If he does protest, it is best to ignore the temperature question and isolate the child anyhow. The teacher who has the best rapport with the child should take the temperature, and if she is too inexperienced in this matter, another teacher should assist her. The experience of

having the temperature taken can be harmful psychologically and we must be very conscientious in avoiding that possibility. Only a rectal thermometer should be used in nursery school, because a child can bite and break a mouth thermometer. The child should lie on his stomach over the teacher's knees with his feet on the floor for taking the temperature. Children easily run temperatures of 101 or 102, and even as high as 103 or 104. Even a slight temperature should be interpreted as a sign of possible illness in the nursery school. A normal temperature by mouth is 98.6°, by rectum, 99.6°.

School Examinations

School health examinations are given by the school's physician. Since his time is valuable, teachers should do all they can to conserve it by having facilities, records, and children ready for him. A cleared desk or a table covered with a sheet may be convenient for him. It is better to have him sit on one of the children's chairs and let the children stand on the floor. This makes them feel more comfortable and less fearful of the examination. The teachers help to undress the children. Again, the teacher who knows the child best may be able to get coöperation from him; whereas the head teacher or assisting teacher may run into resistance. If several children are ready for examination, the doctor can take the coöperative ones first and does not have to waste time with a resistant child, who is thus given a little more time to comply. It is better for the doctor not to give the children candy for it creates jealousy in those who are not examined; also, it is not a reliable inducement for those who need an incentive to undergo examination and it is unnecessary for those who don't need one. When the doctor can stay for lunch or otherwise get acquainted with the children, they are more coöperative.

It is better not to have parents present at health examinations, except for the initial one when the child as yet does not feel at home with the teachers. The parent-teacher-child-doctor situation is quite complicated, especially if it is multiplied by several parents. A small group of children, one teacher, and the doctor makes the best group psychologically. The doctor may need to talk to the parent, and for that purpose a telephone conversation should be arranged which the child does not overhear. Usually a note from

the doctor to send home to the parent will be sufficient. The teacher must follow through on such notes and see to it that the prescribed treatment is actually given. A re-examination of every child by the school's or the child's physician at six month intervals is routine in a good nursery school.

Weighing and measuring the children at monthly intervals helps us to know more about the child's physical condition. While height and weight gains or losses must be interpreted by the physician in the light of other factors, a record of growth is valuable in itself. Such records are not kept on the child's individual health card, but are put on a single sheet for all the children. Such a list reveals the record of the group, which is a reflection on the school's program. To be comparable, the weights should always be taken at the same time of day, preferably after the nap when the children's shoes are already off and after they have urinated. Weighing just after lunch is not so good because the amount of milk consumed with the meal can affect the weight temporarily. A scale which clearly and reliably records ounce variations should be used. Sweaters and shoes come off, but no other clothing unless the corduroy pants or overalls are very heavy. When a child shows no gain in weight, another weighing should be made the next day to confirm the reading. The doctor should be informed of cases where there is no gain in weight.

Measuring the height of young children is quite difficult to do with accuracy. When the scale has a bar that slips up and down, it must move easily or it does not come to rest properly on the head; but when it presses on the head, the child tends to crouch. A good way to measure where the scale has no attachment, is to have a yardstick nailed to the wall and to lay a pencil level on the child's head. The child holds his chin at a right angle to the wall when he stands at measuring posture. Measuring of heights is done with the shoes off. Accuracy is best insured if one teacher reads the heights while another records them on a work sheet and later transfers them to the recording chart.

Dental examinations by a qualified dentist are desirable every three months. A written note can be sent home to the parents in each case where the child should be taken to the dentist. A record of all his recommendations should be kept on one sheet of paper, but no effort need be made to record the result of the dental exam-

inations on the children's individual health record. The parents should be urged to follow up the recommendations of the dentist.

Vision tests for preschool children have been developed by certain physicians, and should be given wherever possible for in this way vision problems which need early treatment can be detected.

Hearing tests for preschool children can be given by the teachers when they have been taught how to do it by a competent physician. Written notices must be sent home to the child's parents informing them of any defects of vision or hearing and recommending the steps that should be taken to take care of them.

Naturally the school cannot assume the responsibility for complete medical attention, but it can urge the parents who cannot afford private physicians to avail themselves of clinic facilities where such are available. The medical responsibility of the school is to keep sick children out, to report all communicable diseases to the Board of Health, to give first-aid treatment to any child who becomes ill during school hours, and to encourage parents to provide medical care for their children.

First Aid

First aid can be administered by any teacher, and every teacher should be able to do so, but all first aid treatments, other than the application of bandages for minor scratches, should be reported to the head teacher in case any complications should develop later on. First-aid facilities include only the items recommended by the school physician, and these should be kept in a locked cabinet in the isolation room. A simple antiseptic and a package of prepared bandages can be kept handy on a high shelf in each toilet, well out of the children's reach. A list of first-aid articles suitable for use in the nursery school is given on page 470 of the Appendix.

All open cuts or bruises should be washed with soap and water, dabbed with the antiseptic, and covered with a bandage. In many cases the child will apply the antiseptic himself if he is given the opportunity to do so. While the application of antiseptic should be the rule, just washing and applying the bandage is the wiser procedure when the child becomes hysterical over the idea. Bandages may be applied upon the child's request, even if the hurt is

more psychological than physical. However, we do not kiss the exact spot of bumps or bruises; we give a more general sympathy.

A child who falls and bumps his head should be allowed to lie down or sit up as he prefers. Cold compresses should be applied to the bump. Whenever a child is hurt or frightened by a bump or fall, the teacher holds him tightly in her arms to make him feel secure, provided he likes being so held. He should be assured that he is all right and held in the teacher's arms or on her lap until he feels better. He should not be expected to walk by himself unless he prefers to do so, and should be carried to the isolation room if he seems shocked or hurt. A hurt child is to be allowed to cry freely, though not for too long. The crying is a necessary release, yet when it is prolonged, it can have the effect of increasing anxiety. When a child has had a head injury, there is need to watch for signs of drowsiness, nausea, and bleeding from the nose, ears, and mouth which can indicate serious trouble. An injured child showing such symptoms should be kept awake and his parents notified that the child needs medical attention. When a child has received a blow, or has had a bad fall and still wants to continue playing as usual, a teacher should be assigned to watch him for at least three hours for any bad effects.

When a child receives a severe cut that needs stitches, the parents should be notified at once so that they may take him to a doctor. First aid consists of washing the wound, covering it with sterile gauze, and applying pressure to stop bleeding. The parent can be told that the child will not be readmitted unless proper medical aid is given. When neither parent of a hurt child can be reached, the child can be taken to the nearest emergency hospital or physician for proper treatment. If a head cut bleeds excessively, pressure should be applied and the child hurried to the hospital; if the bleeding is mild, pressure should be applied and the child allowed to rest a short while before being taken to the hospital or doctor to see if any serious damage has been done. If, to take the most extreme case, such a situation should arise at the end of the day when one teacher is alone with a few children, she should call upon a parent or the nearest available adult who is known to her to take charge of the remaining children while she goes to the hospital in the first car she can commandeer. Fortunately, such a situation is of such extreme rarity as to be almost completely theoretical. Teachers, however,

like to feel that they know what to do in any emergency so the matter is mentioned here. When a child bleeds from the leg or arm, a tourniquet can be applied for not longer than fifteen minutes at a time until proper medical aid can be given. In all cases, the school physician should be consulted if possible, but ordinarily the responsibility for treatment will not be his duty. Nose bleeds usually stop if the child is placed on his side or face down so that the blood runs out instead of down the throat. When bleeding continues, pressure can be applied near the end of the nose, and this will usually stop the bleeding.

It is very unusual for children to fall in nursery school and break bones, but it is possible. Unless a child refuses to be moved, or shows signs of much pain, he should be picked up and carried carefully and held in the teacher's lap while she gives him time to recover; he will show where and how he has been hurt by the way he uses his arms or legs. However, if there is any possibility of broken ribs or spinal injury, the child should not be moved until the doctor comes, but should be covered with a blanket and other children kept away. The parent must be called at once and told to consult a physician, or the school may call its own physician if the parents cannot procure one.

The psychological as well as the physical aspects of bumps, falls, hurts, kicks, bites, and blows is one which needs careful treatment. Whenever a child is hurt, the teacher should give immediate assistance. However, she should never run to a child except to prevent an injury. Once it is too late for that, a less hurried movement is psychologically better for reducing anxiety. A teacher must learn to behave before the child as if no real damage has been done even when she thinks the situation may be serious. Her immediate assurance to the contrary is needed by the child because his anxiety will be great. She must smile, pick up the child deliberately, hold him firmly, and begin reassuring phrases that are sympathetic, such as "Poor Danny, he got a bad fall, yes, he got hurt, but he is going to be all right. Yes, he did get a bad fall, but not too bad, and it didn't hurt him too much. We'll look and see. Can you tell me where you hurt?" This can go on as long as is necessary provided it doesn't sound to the child too much like a cover-up for the teacher's anxiety. This behavior on her part will also help to allay her own anxiety and thus the child's, for although in most cases, the anxiety

is worse than the injury, it is foolish to try to tell the child that he is not hurt or to get impatient with him for thinking he is.

No medication beyond first aid is ever given in nursery school. Tonics, salves, cough syrups, aspirin, sedatives, or other drugs cannot be given upon recommendation of parents or private physicians. The school physician should never prescribe medicines for use in school. It is dangerous to have any individual medication given because of the multiplicity of children and staff and the impossibility of keeping written records of what is being given. No exception should ever be made to this rule against giving individual medicines. When teachers take medication in school, it must not be in the presence of children.

Objects should not be removed by a teacher from the nose or ear unless this can be done by the simple use of fingers. Only the school physician may do this. When sand gets in the eye, crying without rubbing is the best remedy for removing it, but a boric acid or water solution can be applied with an eye cup if the child likes it. Blowing the nose might help. When a child blows his nose, the teacher should never hold one nostril closed, both sides should be blown at once. This is to avoid undue pressure on the eardrum. Antiseptics should not be applied near the eyes. Iodine should not be used in nursery school because it may cause burns. Slivers which hang loose can be removed with tweezers, but buried ones should be removed by the parent or physician.

Parents must be encouraged not to bring to school children who show signs of illness, in the hope that they will pass inspection, but they should phone the school to state why the child is absent.[1] When they fail to do so, a follow-up by telephone or a house call by the visiting nurse service or a staff member can be made. All illness must be reported to the board of health on proper forms.

General Health Practices

Readmission to school after an illness must follow rules that protect the health of all. A child excluded for suspected cold should not be admitted the next day unless it is clearly evident that no cold did develop during the day of exclusion. Since the first three days of a cold are the most contagious period, it is important to

[1] See Chapter on Parents, page 311.

keep a child out of school until it is proved that there is no illness. Besides protecting the group, we protect a child by having him stay home until the nature of the infection is clearly known. Should it prove a severe one, the child's failure to stay in bed at the onset can prolong the disease and decrease the child's resistance to it. Unless there has been a communicable disease, the child should be readmitted upon the decision of the inspecting teacher. A doctor's statement or one from a nurse at a public health clinic should be required after an illness of a communicable disease. Where the inspecting teacher feels that the child's condition is still potentially dangerous, as is the case of a ringworm, for example, the school's own physician or the health department should be the final authority for permission to return to school. A child who has been absent for three days with a fresh cold should be readmitted if he seems well except for an occasional cough or the presence of a mild nasal discharge. Some communities might wish to follow more stringent rulings, but a careful exclusion of beginning colds is the most important preventive measure. Children should not be accepted after an illness until they are well enough to participate in the regular activities, although a child may be accepted for the morning session only. A parent should not be told that a child can be kept indoors all day because there is not enough staff to give this kind of individual attention. The nursery school should freely admit this limitation of service.

Health practices of a school are not all of a medical nature. The control of room temperature, of draughts, the play of children in sun or shade, or with water, the wearing of clothing of proper weight, and the giving of sun baths all contribute to the children's health. Because of the unevenness of daily climate in San Francisco, we do not have sun baths, which are hard to supervise even in better climates. The first day's exposure can be only a few minutes, and for the following days the time must be increased in measured periods. A carefully written schedule must be kept until all children have had the full thirty minutes a day to prevent sunburn. In warm climates where there is enough sun to make sun bathing a daily affair, the problem is often one of keeping the children out of the hot sun. Giving cod-liver oil is certainly easier than giving sun baths, and perhaps preferable. Parents must be cautioned about giving sun baths to their children at home on occasional nice days, for

COMMUNICABLE DISEASE CHART

	FIRST SIGNS	LATER SIGNS	INCUBATION	EXCLUSION * OF SICK CHILD	EXCLUSION OF EXPOSED CHILD
Measles	cold	rash after 3–4 days	9–16 days after exposure	7 days after rash appears	7–14 days inclusive
German measles	rash, no cold, swollen glands on back of skull		12–21 days	for duration of rash	no exclusion
Chicken pox	pimple rash	more extensive rash	11–19 days	after scabs are gone	no exclusion
Whooping cough	cold, dry cough	severe coughing, night spells of coughing	5–14 days	21 days after paroxysmal coughing stops	
Mumps	swelling under ear		14–21 days	7 days and all swelling gone	no exclusion
Scarlet fever	sore throat, vomiting, headache, temperature	rash in day or two	1–7 days	14 days	14 days if in daily contact with sick child, 7 days if separated from sick child

* Children should not be readmitted to school unless they seem completely well, even if they meet these requirements.

Any case of scarlet fever, poliomyelitis, epidemic meningitis, small pox, diphtheria, and typhoid should not be readmitted to school without a written statement from the Board of Health.

children sometimes come to school badly sunburned from exposure on such days. San Francisco is much too cold for water play outdoors either in a sprinkler or pool. Such play is always overstimulating in large groups, difficult to organize even on a rare occasion, and is an activity that should be excluded by the nursery school of the type we are discussing.

Children must be properly clad for outdoor play. Teachers must watch for clothing that is too warm or not warm enough. Fluctuations in temperatures take place from early morning to noon and

from noon to later afternoon. This means frequent putting on and taking off of outer wraps. It is hard to tell whether or not a child is over- or underclothed, and teachers have to use their best judgment. The overheated child who refuses to remove a garment should be encouraged to do less strenuous play. A child who looks a little unhappy or who just stands may be cold and not know what is the matter. Teachers must watch and recommend more clothing. The one who refuses to put more garments on should be sent indoors to play until he puts them on, unless the teacher feels that there is no hazard to his decision that he is warm enough. Much illness can be prevented if teachers are alert to the need for removing or putting on outer garments according to fluctuation of temperatures and winds. However, they should remember variation in individual requirements. Children show more good will toward each other in play when they are neither too hot nor too cold. A few hooks on the outside of the building make the taking off and hanging up of sweaters and coats an easy task. Children do not like to stop playing long enough to go to their lockers inside, yet wraps should be protected from dirt by being hung on hooks instead of being left on the ground or on benches.

It is very important that the mental health of the child be kept in mind at all times. Unnecessary talk about germs, and practices which reflect fear of germs rather than a common-sense hygienic attitude tend to create anxiety. Great progress has been made in the last half century in the control of physical diseases, but the control of mental diseases has yet a long way to go. The nursery school has much to contribute, but sound physical and mental health practices can be developed in nursery school only if the child's total personality needs are considered. The epidemiologist, the psychiatrist, and the nursery school expert must function as a team in working out procedures and policies. The pediatrician who condemns nursery schools on health grounds should first investigate the true nature of the health hazards in a given school, and know what the school's assets are for promoting mental and physical health.

A good nursery school will show a low incidence of children's diseases. The health record of the three Golden Gate Nursery Schools for 1947 shows 8 cases of chickenpox, 2 of mumps, 4 of measles and 2 of ringworm for an average daily attendance of ap-

proximately 150 children. It was proved that none of the cases were contracted at school but came from contacts at Sunday school, birthday parties, from neighborhood children, or siblings. Other illnesses such as colds and intestinal upsets are very common. Every child will, over a year's period, miss at least a few days of school. The attendance record for a nursery school which rigidly excludes children for suspected and for actual infection will show no higher attendance than seventy-five per cent of enrollment. It must be remembered that some of this absence is preventive; some of it is due to other reasons, such as holidays and vacations, or illness of the person who brings the child to school. Comparison with attendance of older school children is not appropriate. Furthermore, the home contributes its share of exposing children to infection, not to mention parks, playgrounds, grocery stores, and movies. And finally the question of the child's need to develop immunity must be faced by every parent. If a child can attend a good nursery school and be fairly well protected from constant exposure to the illnesses of family members, his immunity will probably be developed with less hazard than if he were allowed to play with "uninspected" children on the streets. And surely no one would say that children must not be allowed to play with others of their own age because of the disease risk. A fair medical examination of this whole question would no doubt convince most doctors that the good nursery school is quite a safe place for young children — both physically and psychologically.

Selected Reading

Aldrich, C. Anderson, M.D., and Mary M. Aldrich, *Babies Are Human Beings*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1938.
This little volume written by a pediatrician and his wife makes it clear that doctors are human beings, too, and that babies need more than regular feeding schedules.

Children's Bureau, Publication No. 30. *Your Child From One to Six*, rev. ed. Washington, D.C., U.S. Department of Labor, 1945.
A comprehensive statement of everything from soup to nuts in the care of the preschool child; good illustrations, modern psychological approach, brief and to the point — all is included in 147 pages.

Kenyon, Josephine Hemenway, M.D., *Healthy Babies Are Happy Babies*, 3d rev. ed. Boston, Little, Brown and Company, 1943.

A baby book that does not go much below the surface of physical health. Contrast what Dr. Kenyon and Dr. Spock say on various subjects that bother parents.

Seham, Max, M.D., and Grete Seham, *The Tired Child.* New York, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1926.

An analysis of the complexities of fatigue—its physical and emotional basis. A readable, objective approach.

Shutz, Lois R., and Mollie S. Smart, *Understanding Your Baby.* Garden City, New York, Sun Dial Press, 1942.

Contains 130 adorable pictures of babies. Text good, except on toilet training.

Spock, Benjamin, M.D., *Pocket Book of Baby and Child Care.* New York, Pocket Books, 1946.

This book has a modern approach and more psychological insight into the problems of pediatrics than any baby book before written. Teachers who have never had babies can get some idea of what is involved by reading about the first two years.

17

Parents

WE HAVE NOT GIVEN this chapter the heading "Parent Education" because our experience has made us rather skeptical toward efforts to combine the education of parents with the work of the nursery school. Since such skepticism is not shared by the majority of nursery education experts, we feel that it is desirable to present the reasons underlying our attitude before we go on to describe in detail how our schools deal with the parents.

As we have said before, the parents of children in public nursery schools are from every walk of life and represent a wide selection of social, economic, racial, and educational groups. They are individually so varied in development and experience that few group labels can be put on them. True, they are all parents, adults, men and women, and city residents, but beyond that there is scarcely a descriptive term that fits all of them, for they are citizens and noncitizens, workers and nonworkers, young and old, sick and well, rich and poor, stable and unstable, educated and illiterate, communist and capitalist — in short, there is no homogeneity at all. For this reason "the parents" in our schools do not constitute a group in the fine sense of the word, and they cannot even be lumped together into a category for educational purposes, but must be looked upon as a collection of individuals. While this diversity does not exist in all nursery schools, it is nevertheless one which would be generally characteristic of public urban nursery schools and which must be remembered in any discussion of nursery education on a broad scale. Even such a fundamental statement as one to

the effect that all our parents have the interest of their children at heart, or that they all believe in nursery school, cannot be made because some are too unstable or immature to look after their children's interests, while others use nursery school only because circumstances force them to do so. In fact, no statement pertinent to education can be made which is true for every single parent in our schools. In approaching the question of the parents, then, we must accept this reality and not proceed on the assumption that this or that favorable or desirable estimate of parents is valid.

This approach to the subject of parents is not in accordance with the generally accepted attitude regarding nursery education. We believe that wishful thinking and zeal for reforming underlie the attitude of most schools and teachers toward parents, and that an illusionary, overexpectant sentiment underlies the attitude of most parents toward schools. In fact, not to assume certain basic qualities on both sides is to open questions so painful to discuss that most people are willing to accept those assumptions as selfevident and unquestionable, and then to proceed with their thinking from there on. Here we do not want to make any such assumptions because we should examine the facts and see to what extent the existing home-school relationships are founded upon realities, and to what extent on mere wishful thinking.

The Home versus the Nursery School

It would be a delight to everyone concerned if parents, teachers, and children could all get along with one another without major difficulties or conflicts. The child who comes to the nursery school is the product of his home environment which may be very different from that of the school. Indeed, that homes and schools are very different worlds is clearly manifest in any discussion where home and school become subjects for argument. We cannot assume that the home exists according to what we as teachers would wish it to be, or what it is traditionally pictured to be, for that institution is today in a state of change which is most difficult to understand. Therefore, it is wiser for the nursery school not to assume that home-school relationships can or must be of a certain character, but instead to let both school and home preserve their independent identities. Now, this is not to say that a state of divorce

should exist between school and home, but neither is marriage the proper relationship. In fact, a state of good friendship is probably the one to work for, one which allows on both sides more individuality and more freedom to develop than has heretofore been considered desirable. However, since the inception of nursery education, educators have been trying to effect a marriage between nursery education and parent education — according to a formula which begins, "Once upon a time, home life for women and children began to change," and ends, ". . . . and so they lived happily ever after by learning to understand each other in nursery school." And the union has never really taken because an ailing partner was wedded to an infantile one. From its beginning nursery school has had to accept a responsibility for parent education that is far beyond what it can honestly assume. Unless it is set free from this burden, its growth will be stunted; and as time goes on, it will not be the real support to the home that it will eventually become if it is allowed to be itself.

In times when the family provided some of the social and educational opportunities that, for many reasons, it can no longer offer, the need for nursery schools was not so urgent as it is now. In assuming their task, nursery schools have undertaken to add to the education of the home, but not in any way to supplant or replace home life. Lip service to this idea has been given in all nursery school publicity. Yet, in practice, nearly all schools have tried to influence and to change parents regarding their way of life at home and regarding their methods of dealing with their children outside school hours, in both superficial and profound ways. This can be done without friction only when the school and the home have an eagerness to coöperate and make home and school life as identical as possible. The W.P.A. nursery school program of parent education used the schools primarily to reach and influence parents. Thus, while the nursery schools claim to have no desire to replace or supplant the child's home life, they sometimes overstress efforts to alter his parents' behavior so that it conforms to the nursery school ideas of proper behavior, and they do not hesitate to say that the school's ideas are better. In fact, the majority of schools are so unhappy if parents do not coöperate that they spend a great deal of time and effort trying to get them to accept school concepts of hygiene, diet, discipline, manners, and language. All this is done under the

slogan, "You cannot separate the child from his home." But this is not necessarily so; even in the case of the young child, nor is it selfevident that efforts to change the home are wise.

The truth is that many a child is separated from his home with great benefit. Fortunately, the number is not great of those who must be removed from delinquent homes by process of law and placed in orphanages and boarding homes. Children must often be temporarily separated from home when a parent is ill, dead, insane, imprisoned, or otherwise prevented from taking care of his children. Children themselves have to be removed from home when they are ill, incapacitated, incorrigible, or in need of treatment or specialized education. At all times, and in all walks of life, even the very youngest children have been left with friends, neighbors, and relatives for days at a time. To take a child from his home is no new idea, but to take him to an organized group – the nursery school – is a relatively new idea. Many parents and even some teachers still look upon the voluntary enrollment by a parent of a child in a nursery school as a premature severing of a psychological attachment, but do not object when a nursemaid takes the child to the park to play with children who may have whooping cough: in other words, the traditional nursemaid is looked upon as a satisfactory mother substitute and a teacher is not. Whether or not the separation of a child from his home is good depends upon circumstances, but it is unrealistic to believe that there are no separations. The placing of a child in a nursery school will be good or bad depending largely upon how the school treats the child, not upon what caused him to be so placed. Therefore, the first responsibility of the school is to do its own job well; if and when it can also help a home do its job, that is also well and good. But the "if" and "when" are large orders, and there is need for a reappraisal of popular concepts regarding school-home relationships. The fact is that most nursery schools still have a big job to do and a long way to go before they can feel satisfied with what they are doing for the children, and the extramural task of parent education may turn out to be one for which they are not as well equipped as some other agency.

It is no easy task for adults to care for groups of children, large or small, young or old, and to do it on a creative basis. Our public education from kindergarten on has been operating more than

twice as long as have our nursery schools, and educational methods have been developed which reflect development and growth. A modern kindergarten has little semblance to those run by the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association in 1880 because time and experience have been the educator's teachers. Nursery schools are young and have not had time to find the answers to many questions. They have also been less widespread than the kindergartens, and have been concentrated in our urban areas. Furthermore, they have mostly been used for purposes such as research, employment, and helping women to go to work. Thus, the care and education of the children was of a nature that fitted the needs of adults, and this may be one of the reasons why nursery education is viewed with suspicion by the average citizen.

All these factors have influenced the development of nursery schools, many of which even today put the main emphasis on research, service to working parents, parent or other adult education, so that the children's interests still do not come first. Nursery education now needs, we believe, a stretch of development where the child's needs come first, so that it may qualify to join the ranks of regular public education. Parent education is a large and important problem, but it should not be coupled with nursery education; rather, it should be looked upon as a branch of adult education. Adult education of this sort could make good use of the nursery school as a laboratory, but to make nursery education inseparable from parent education is to create an educational Siamese twin. The nursery school has already suffered from this attempt, chiefly in the selection of teachers and in conflicts with parents. Children have suffered by not having their parents educated before the children reached nursery school age and then by having teachers who must cater to parents; and parents have suffered by placing themselves in unhealthy competition with teachers on a highly emotional basis.

We do not know all the factors that go to make a good personality in a nursery school teacher, but we do know from experience that the adult who works well with children is generally less successful in working with adults. Therefore, if teachers are selected primarily because they get along well with children, though not equally well with parents, the children would benefit more than if they were taught by persons who do less well with children, but also

get along with parents. If schools try to have a half and half arrangement for staff, some teachers who like children better, some who like parents better, then a kind of split psychology dominates the school. To search exclusively for individuals who are good both with children and with parents would be impossible in terms of the realities of the public nursery school situation.

Parent Education

Systematic parent education is hard to plan. Working mothers have little time, and seldom get to school except to bring and take the child. Thus, they see only the regularly scheduled teachers who may not be the best parent educators, and in any event they see them when other parents demand time and when privacy and attention are not obtainable. If someone were assigned to do the interviewing at these hours, her knowledge of the children would not be firsthand, and parents would be too hurried to make good use of the interviewer's time. A social worker or visiting teacher who calls on parents would also be an additional expense, and her knowledge of the children would be even more secondhand. Unless she had unusual maturity and ability, she would not be able to deal with many of the problems. Qualified persons of this type are in such demand by other agencies that nursery schools can hardly expect to obtain their services. Where a young or inexperienced social worker does parent interviews, she should be under the supervision of a social work agency; and nursery schools do better when they refer families needing social service to the social agency. All problems and questions which cannot be settled by teachers and parents in their incidental daily contacts are matters which require a qualified expert's help. The nursery school can give no proper supervision to the inexpert social worker on its staff. The school's social worker or visiting teacher, unlike a doctor or dentist, would be needed to do much more than just make diagnoses and send the parent to someone else for treatment. As it is, head teachers can always refer parents to social agencies when parents ask for help.

Evening meetings for parents can easily be scheduled, but for many reasons they will not be well attended — there is no one to stay home with the children; parents do and should prefer entertainment if they can get a night off; they feel that the level of the

meeting will be over or under their heads; or they are simply not interested in public discussion, and so on with many variations. Schools themselves are hard put to find speakers and programs suitable for the uneven levels of the parents' development and interest. In any event, through meetings only a portion of the parents will be reached, and usually not the ones most in need of enlightenment. Parents who are well satisfied with the school are not automatically inclined to carry on either intellectual or social relationships with the school's teachers outside of school hours.

Bulletins for parents can be useful, but except for those that apply to specific situations in the school, printed pamphlets and books can be distributed or recommended for reading that are far better than what most schools could devise. Even the best writers on child psychology find such writing difficult; yet teachers and supervisors are often expected to write for parents on very difficult subject matter. Each little school cannot do this properly; the pamphleteering field is a specialty of its own. Nursery schools should look to educational, mental hygiene, and child study associations to do this job for them.

The most difficult problem faced by the school in attempting parent education is not one of selecting appropriate staff, or of arranging good parent meetings, but is one of keeping its educational house in order. Some schools actually give the appearance of being child guidance clinics. Every day it is becoming more evident that the kind of parent education of which the nursery school is most acutely in need is psychiatric counseling for parents and teachers. Whereas counseling for teachers should not be burdensome if teachers are well chosen, that for parents is a tremendous task. In fact, any effort to change parents' behavior must come through giving them new insight and changing their emotional attitudes. To ask the nursery school to do this on an individual basis is to ask teachers to be psychiatrists, and today much parent counseling is being conducted by persons who are not professionally qualified for such work. In this fashion, parent-teacher-child relationships are often made more instead of less complicated, and sometimes as much damage as good is done. This brings us back to our experience that teachers who are excellent with children are often totally unable and unfit to counsel parents, and should not be expected to do so.

Children suffer when nursery education takes on the burden of parent education; the children should always come first, and they cannot when parents' problems and worries get equal consideration. It is unrealistic to say there is no conflict, for there is, even though in some instances it may not be very conspicuous. The child who will be punished at home if his mother learns of any misdeed in school must be protected by the teacher's not telling the mother. This is the safest and simplest protection. If the mother has to be educated out of some misbehavior of hers, the child suffers while the teacher works on the mother with no assurance of success. In this respect it is important to remember that the entire educational approach of the nursery school is not understood by the majority of the parents, nor could they be made to understand it without a comprehensive reëducation impossible for the school to give. Even simply to prevent adults from resorting to corporal punishment is an educational task that the school cannot accomplish with the full success it can within the school. Teachers are free to practice an understanding attitude toward masturbating, wetting, fighting, and refusing to eat in school—provided no crusade is launched among the parents to win their participation. A few exceptional parents might be made to understand, but again, they are least likely to need it. Efforts on the part of the nursery school to explain its methods to parents will generally stir up trouble and result in less educational advantage to children. When parents think the school's theories are wrong even if they think its practices good, as a result of parent education which has stirred up ideological conflicts, then such education is plainly destructive. It is better for parents to get new ideas from other sources in order to judge how up-to-date the school is.

Another way in which children suffer when the school tries to educate the parent as well is from teachers who unconsciously take out on them resentments against the parents. When teachers are given the responsibility of making parents understand the school's ways and to get them to follow school methods at home, they feel frustrated when parents are resistant, hostile, or uninterested. Parents often resent advice that comes from young teachers who have never had children of their own. Where parent-teacher friction develops, the child easily becomes a victim of adult resentments, whereas, when teachers are not held responsible for changing

parents' attitudes, and when parents do not feel impelled to listen to teachers, both can go about their own ways without making the child a pawn between them.

The argument is often raised that a child should not live in two different worlds — one at home and another at school; that these two institutions must be in harmony as to disciplinary and educational procedures. Such coördination is impossible to attain in any case, since homes are so widely divergent. Furthermore, children seem to do quite well in two sets of environments, except for those who come from brutal homes. They learn that school and home are different in what they do and do not permit. Where the home situation is bad, children benefit by being relieved from the pressure while attending nursery school. Where the home is good, it can still be different from school, and the difference need not be disturbing to the child. In fact, school and home are of necessity different, and this is one of the educational assets of the nursery school. The mere difference in the adult-child ratio of home and school creates a world of different situations and procedures.

Children suffer when they are present as the subject of discussion between parent and teacher. Yet, much of the discussion will inevitably be overheard by children if parents, too, are being educated. The daily reporting to parents on child behavior tends to create anxiety on the part of both. Taking home slips which record nap, food intake, and elimination, implies some parental mistrust in the school and the child, and an acceptance of this mistrust by the school. A child should not be sent home with such a daily report card. It should be assumed that any unusual and significant behavior will be conveyed verbally to the parents, for regular reporting on normal behavior becomes meaningless or creates anxiety. Children's own accounts often do not agree with the written ones, and parents are then also anxious over conflicting reports.

Children can suffer from a vigorous parent education program connected with the nursery school because the first thing that a conscientious parent realizes, as she listens to school psychology, is that she has made a lot of mistakes with her child. When she tries to rectify them, she can cause great disturbance to the child unless she proceeds cautiously and under expert guidance. If she develops anxiety and remorse, she may take out her aggressions on the school, herself, or the child. On the other hand, when she learns of her mis-

takes in an incidental fashion rather than by planned lectures and conferences, she is less likely to look at matters with any resentment or unhealthy guilt feeling.

Parents do not always benefit from the school's effort to educate them as much as is generally believed. Many improvements in the mother's or the child's behavior should be attributed to an improved relationship which results from nursery school attendance. On the other hand, where parents are made too self-conscious, or where teachers pry into their private lives, they may become uncomfortable, defensive, and even antagonistic to the whole environmental set-up. In other words, parent education can stir up parent conflicts as well as resolve them. No one can tell in advance what the effect of nursery school attendance will be upon the mother-child relationship. The fact is that we do not know just exactly what to tell parents beyond a few simple things regarding diet, hygiene, and clothing. The school knows what the school can and should do through its group psychology, but home psychology is very different.

To summarize, for nursery schools of the type we are discussing only incidental teacher help to parents is commendable, and parent education should be left to other agencies for these reasons: teachers have neither the time nor the qualifications to conduct organized parent education; parent groups seldom have the homogeneity needed for group education; when teachers teach both parents and children relationships become too involved and conflicting; special staff for parent education is costly, is not easily integrated into the nursery school, and functions better from a base of adult education; the most fundamental parent education needs to be done before the child reaches the nursery school age; and the nursery school, having not yet solved its own basic problems, cannot take on such a large additional order as parent education.

The School's Attitude Toward Parents

Our own attitude toward the parents in our schools can be set forth in very simple terms. For whatever reason the parent sends the child to school, we are glad to have him. We do not want to be told in advance what the mother thinks of the child, nor what his habits and past experiences are. The only special treatment we are

in a position to offer is a somewhat modified diet for allergies, about which we do want to be told. Otherwise, we wish to make our own estimates of the child's personality, and we believe that his adjustment in school will be better if we observe him and follow the clues we get from him and his behavior rather than his mother's report about him.

We tell the parents that, because coming to school involves great changes in the environment for eating, sleeping, toileting, and playing, no one can predict how a given child will react, and therefore advice based on predictions will not help much. The child who has never fed himself, for example, may pick up a spoon and eat; if he does not, the teacher will offer to feed him and will do so if he wants it. To know whether or not he feeds himself at home is of no consequence because even a child who is known to do so regularly may need to be fed the first day or two of school. One of the thrills of teaching is this getting acquainted with a child on the very first day. The situation regarding pants-wetting is similar. The dry child may wet once or oftener, the wetter has been known to stay dry. Certainly no one can predict whether or not a child will sleep on the first day or soon thereafter. Previous habits may be completely changed or adapted to the school situation. A history of them is without practical value; the nature of the child's school behavior is all that matters. Nor does the teacher's or the mother's knowledge of the behavior history help the school to change the behavior of the child. The mere change of environment may be the reason for a change in behavior, and the problem is then what to do about it.

In our schools, parents are not allowed to stay in the room with the child even on the first day of attendance. Previous to enrolling, the parent and child visit the school for an hour or so and make arrangements for the entering day. On that day, after the child's health inspection, the parent leaves. She may remain out of sight to assure herself that all is well, or she may stay away until one o'clock. In case it appears that the child may be too upset, the mother is asked to stay on the premises out of sight to be called if necessary. A child is never kept for nap the first day if this can be avoided because a whole day of separation from his usual environment is too much. A half day, we feel, is not too difficult for the average child. We do not want the child to get the impression that school is for

mother, too, and we do not expect that he be told that he needn't be afraid because mother will stay with him. The school's charms are alluring from the beginning, and we think the child needs to know from the very start that the price of school fun is the separation from mother. Sometimes the wrench is great, but if mother is allowed to stay with him for a few days, the child will later be just as heartbroken over the mother's departure. In our experience, the homesickness of a child separated from a mother who has initiated him into school is greater than that of one for whom the break is clean-cut from the first day on. Furthermore, his anxiety caused by the anticipation that mother will leave, as she has told him she eventually will, is often greater than that generated by her actual absence. There are, of course, rare exceptions. Needless to say, the presence of the mother in the school is no help to the teacher or the other children. So far as homesickness is concerned, few children suffer much from it. The acute cases are the ones where mother and child already have a bad relationship or where they have suffered from an emotional upset such as a recent divorce, or an illness, or some other disturbing influence, which is not remedied by having the mother attend school for a few days.

Schools must be careful about giving immature children a trial period of attendance to see whether or not the child is old enough for school, because great damage is done if his first experience in school is just frustrating and ends in withdrawal. Frustration and homesickness that end happily in a week or so are worth risking. A child is not ready for school unless he is approximately the age of the others in the group, unless he has been weaned from the bottle, unless he can walk fairly steadily, and unless he understands language and seems interested in the things in the environment. He does not need to talk or be toilet trained before admission to a suitable group. His chronological age is not the chief factor, though few children under twenty months are ready for nursery school. Unless the set-up is expressly intended for young twos, some children who are already past two are not yet ready for school. It is usually very unwise to admit one or two children who are much younger than the others in the group, no matter what the age of the children.

Parents are welcome to visit school after two or three weeks

when the child has become adjusted, but by then they are usually not too concerned and do not spend much time visiting. There is, however, the parent who will gladly take an hour a day of the teacher's time if she will give it. It would be unfair to give just one or two parents a great deal of time, and teachers must make it clear that they cannot do so, even though the parent may withdraw the child and take him to another school where she will be listened to. Parent-teacher relationships should be friendly, but reserved, and controversial topics should not be discussed in school. Arguments and disagreements with parents can affect the teacher's feeling toward them and their children. As a rule close personal relationships between teachers and parents should not be developed, and home visiting should be undertaken only upon authorization of the supervisor.

Parents should not be made to feel that they must agree with the school or the teachers in all matters, but their general confidence is essential for their children's feeling of security. A parent who is steadfastly hostile should be encouraged to take her child elsewhere unless the school thinks the child would suffer from the change, in which case the child should be kept, and if the parent cannot be won over, she should be ignored. No school can please everybody all the time. Parents should not be urged too much to attend whatever parent meetings may be scheduled or read books on child psychology. They should be told of meetings and books that might interest them and let alone after that. The school teachers should avoid acting as if they knew the answer even though parents insist that teachers should know. Teachers should always admit they are only teachers, not psychologists, parent counselors, or oracles of wisdom.

In general, a parent should not be told of a child's misbehavior. It seldom does good, and often does harm. Everyone behaves better if good or improved conduct is assumed to be the rule. The children tell their own stories and although some of them will later need correcting, tattling on children to parents is a bad thing. School behavior is the school's business. When it is necessary to discuss a child's behavior problem with a parent, this should be done in a general and constructive way. Recommendations that a child see a physician, a child guidance clinic, a relative, or similar

suggestions may be made, but only after due consideration and by the proper teacher, preferably the head teacher. The inspecting and the closing teachers should not consider themselves parent counselors just because they see the parents more regularly. Advice to parents should be offered only where teachers feel sure that it is suitable. The rule is not to rush in where psychiatrists fear to tread. A teacher need never feel ashamed to say that she doesn't know, and a sympathetic attitude toward a parent's trouble will often be all that the parent really wants anyway.

Parent Regulations

Parents who are harsh, scolding, or brutal to their children in school must be curbed on school grounds. We cannot have children see others mistreated on the premises. Such parents, like their children, need affection, and it must be given even if they don't seem to deserve it. They have their troubles — we can be sure of that. Taking the parent's side against the child helps, and if teachers make an effort at the same time to build parental pride in the child, the child's interests are also protected. Sometimes great changes can be brought about when teachers have a warm human interest in parents, and it can be done in the everyday personal contact. It is simply the nature of human relationships that teachers are able to help certain parents with their problems. Beyond this kind of parent education we are not yet prepared to go.

Parents need to be told in writing of the school's rules and regulations which apply to them. This is best done by parent bulletins which can be typed, mimeographed, or printed. Subjects to be covered in the bulletin are: auspices of the school, fees, rates, date of payment, refunds for absences, hours of school service, health regulations, clothing regulations, names of staff members, and other information or suggestions that are of interest to parents. Parents often like to have copies of the menus and to be able to read them on the bulletin board. Parent bulletins should be given out as soon as the parents have decided to enroll the child so that the mother has time to read them before she brings the child the first day. It also helps if the father has a chance to read them before the child comes. Examples of parent bulletins as used in the Golden Gate Nursery Schools are given here as illustrations.

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

570 Union Street, San Francisco, California

Parents' Bulletin No. 1

The Golden Gate Nursery Schools take any child over two and under six years of age who is physically and emotionally ready for nursery school, who will attend regularly, and who can be properly cared for at home in case of illness. No child is admitted until he has had a medical examination and the proper immunizations. The school reserves the right to discontinue the enrollment of any child if, for any reason, this seems appropriate.

The schools are operated by the Board of Directors of the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association. They are supported by funds received from endowments, from the Community Chest, and from parents' fees; the endowment funds remain approximately the same from year to year. Fees from parents must be estimated for a year in advance in order that the Community Chest may know what funds it is expected to supply. It is necessary that the amount estimated for fees actually be secured from the parents. Therefore, the head teachers are expected to see that the following regulations regarding collection of fees are adhered to:

1. Fees must be paid monthly in advance by the 10th of the month. No child will be admitted after the 15th unless the fee has been paid, or arrangement for payment is made.

2. Fees are as follows:

9:30 to 11:30	$20.00
9:00 to 12:45	30.00
9:00 to 4:00	40.00
7:00 to 6:00	50.00

Reduced fees may be applied for on a social service basis.

3. Allowances for absence or withdrawal are as follows: No credit allowance is made for the first five days of absence; for the second five days half of the daily prorated fee will be allowed; for the next ten days of absence full credit allowance will be made. For credit allowance, absences must be on consecutive days.

4. A place will not be held for a child beyond one month of absence unless one-half of the monthly fee is paid in advance.

5. Refunds can be made only by the Supervisor by checks issued by the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association. Head teachers may not make any refunds.

6. A charge of fifty cents for every half hour or portion thereof will be made for children who remain in school after the closing hour of the session for which they are enrolled. This is in the nature of a fine rather than a service charge. Teachers' schedules are based on enrollments, and they must be paid overtime if detained. We do not like our teachers to work overtime since they are already scheduled for a long working day. Our budget and fee scale do not allow for frequent payment of overtime. Children who are left overtime too often will be dropped from the school. Since the schedule at 11:30 and 12:45 calls for activities in which the children who are scheduled to go home cannot participate, it is especially important to have those children called for very promptly. Overtime charges begin at 11:40, 1:00 and 4:10. Overtime charges must be paid by the following morning.

7. Children may occasionally be left at school for a longer session on payment of fifty cents for lunch and fifty cents for the naptime. Such service will be offered at the discretion of the head teacher and upon a day's advance notice.

8. Children who register for the 9:00 to 1:00 session or the 9:00 to 4:00 session may arrive not earlier than 8:50 because the teachers on duty are needed at the breakfast table. Those who come for the 9:30 to 11:30 session may arrive not earlier than 9:15. All children should be in school by 9:30, and no one will be accepted after 10:00, unless the school is notified in advance of the reason for coming late.

9. Children who become indisposed at school will be isolated. A parent must call for such a child immediately after being notified, since sick children may not remain in school for several hours.

These rules have been made to enable the school and the teachers to live up to their full responsibility. When they are not enforced, there is danger of strain on both teachers and children. Therefore, we urge your full coöperation and your realization of why we must follow these rules.

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS
570 Union Street, San Francisco, California

Parents' Bulletin No. 2

Our nursery schools operate for the purpose of giving your child the best service that we can. We expect both parents and teachers to remember that the child's needs always come first.

In each school, our staff consists of a head teacher, an assistant head teacher, other teachers, a cook, and a housekeeper, all of whom work under the direction of a supervisor and a school physician.

We know that going to nursery school is usually a very good influence in a child's life. However, the change from staying home to going to school often causes new behavior which is not agreeable to parents. Although some children seem to shoot ahead in a thoroughly satisfactory way, others fall back a bit until they get their bearings. "Dry" children may have accidents; good home eaters may dislike nursery school food at first; good sleepers may think the group nap is a lark. Therefore, we ask you not to get too concerned about your child's changed behavior at home or at school until he and you have had time to get used to the new pattern of life.

As you will have noticed, on your application blank we have not asked you any questions about your child or your family other than those required by the board of health. This is not because we are indifferent, but because we want to form our own judgments about your child's behavior. After four or five weeks we will confer with you and compare notes. Therefore, unless a child is having too hard a time getting adjusted to school, our parent-teacher contacts will be brief for the first month. You may find this difficult, but we feel that we have a better perspective if we get our own information about your child before we enter into discussion with you.

The following are suggestions for helping us work together:

1. *Never slap or spank* your child while at school, and do not threaten to do so as soon as you get outside. We urge you not to do this at home, either. We do not discuss a child's faults within his hearing, and feel that such things should always be discussed in privacy. We try to say only good things when he is around.

2. *Air any complaints* about the school freely to the supervisor or head teacher, but not to anyone else. Don't smother your criticisms nor refrain from speaking because you think the complaints are petty. Ask to see the guidebook which explains how our schools operate.

3. *Bring your child regularly*. Don't keep him out because it is more convenient for you to do so. However, always keep your child home if you think he is not perfectly well. This prevents

infections from spreading at school. Be sure to phone the school to give the reason for absence, since we must report absences for illness to the board of health.

4. *Don't be envious* of the behavior of other children. Every child has his problems; those of your child just happen to be his and sometimes loom big because they bother you, rather than because they are serious. Let us place the child in the group where we feel he will do best. Do not try to have him "promoted." Our age groupings are very flexible and we want the child to be where he does best, regardless of his birth date.

5. *School clothing* should be washable and comfortable. Every child should have a sweater *and* a coat and a head covering to wear *every* day. One or the other or all may be needed. Never assume that the entire day will be warm in San Francisco. An old sweater and coat can be left at school. Extra pants, under and outer, should be left for all the two- and three-year-old children. Coveralls are good for girls and boys, not only for warmth, but for protection from minor bruises if they fall on the cement. The school will not be responsible for clothing that is not marked with name tapes. No handkerchiefs should be brought to school. School clothing must be returned within one week or paid for as follows: pants, 50¢; shirts, 50¢; coveralls, $2.00; sweaters, $2.00.

6. *Toys, food, or candy* should never be brought to school. Sharing personal toys is not easy, and they may get broken. Breakfast should be finished before the child comes to school, not eaten on the way. Give gum in the evening instead of the morning.

7. *Morning inspection* will go better if the parent will remove the outer coat and then let the teacher do all the rest, if possible, *without* any aid or comment from the parent. Where the child doesn't want the mother to remove the coat, let the teacher do it. Try not to be in a hurry. Look at the paintings on the wall while you are waiting, and appear patient while the inspection takes place. This is speediest in the end. We do not want the child to start the school day with a scene.

8. *Make your good-bye brief.* Give kisses, but don't ask for them and don't insist on being answered "Good-bye" by your child. Be sure, however, that he hears you say good-bye. Also, do not give him any instructions to be a "good boy," to "eat a big lunch," or to "play nicely with the children." Rather say, "Good-

bye, I'll come for you at such and such time." *Then go.* Do not go into the playroom. If you want to visit the school, make an exit and return later to observe, if possible, without being seen. If your child has a tantrum at your departure, let the teacher take charge of him. You should leave, then telephone or come back if you feel uncomfortable about the outcome. Usually the child stops crying as soon as the mother disappears. To stay is to prolong the agony. The child who is homesick because he is too attached to his mother, gets plenty of attention and affection from the teachers until he has won his emotional independence. A sensible mother will struggle to overcome her feeling of being slighted when she sees her child eagerly join the group.

9. *Talk as briefly* as possible to the teachers when they are on duty, because it distracts them, and children are usually listening. Come in between 1:30 and 3:00 for conferences, or phone in during these hours to talk things over. Write messages on the blackboard or leave a note with the inspecting teacher. Do not discuss matters with the cook, housekeeper, or janitor.

10. *Call for your child promptly,* but do not expect him to rush off home with you at the moment of your appearance. Especially the first week or so, it is often hard to get him to leave. Eventually, however, the children will learn to respond promptly to your appearance. Where the child does not want to go home, it is better to let the teacher tell the child he must go. He won't hold it against her, and he may against you if you are insistent.

11. *Parents should wait in the hall* for the children after lunch and not come in the playroom or peek in the doors. You may disturb the ones who are already on their cots, and you may distract your child from eating his dessert or from going to the toilet. Depending on how popular the menu items are, lunch is over earlier some days than others. It is better for you to wait five minutes for your child than for him to wait for you. We do not want to set up any post-lunch diversion because the children are loath to leave it. If you come at 12:45, you will not usually have to wait. Coming earlier will give you an opportunity to meet other mothers and get acquainted. If your child is too young to fetch any forgotten article from the locker by himself, come in quickly yourself and get it instead of asking the teacher for it. Until the children are all on their cots, this is her busiest period. Remember not to ask how much your child ate. Call up later if you really want to know.

12. A mother calling for her child in the late afternoon should come into the playroom and stand by the door until the child comes over to her. Let him get his own things from the locker if possible. Do not expect to find his clothes readily unless everything is marked with name tapes. When the children are playing out of doors at going home time, the parent is responsible for getting things from his locker, since the teacher is not free to come in from the yard.

13. *Visitors* are always welcome at school. Strangers do not upset the children, but parents do. Therefore, make arrangements with the head teacher for a suitable visiting time. Every parent should come at least once, if possible, to watch the lunch period. Watching the yard play is always in order, provided your child does not become upset and you do not talk to the children or the teachers.

In actual practice, rules and regulations are often nothing but matters of parent-child-teacher etiquette. Unless certain forms are observed, fifty children, fifty mamas, and ten teachers can get very much in each other's way. If you try to understand the reasoning back of these rules, you will be able to conform without feeling self-conscious or restricted. Everything has been worked out so that any strain will fall on the mother or the teacher – not on the child.

Selected Reading

Blatz, William E., and Helen Bott, *Parents and the Pre-School Child.* New York, William Morrow, 1938.

A heavy, hard-going book that is based on wide research by the authors but lacks modern dynamic insight.

Child Study Association of America, *Concerning Parents.* New York, New Republic, 1926.

An excellent collection of essays by outstanding thinkers on problems of modern family life and education.

Dreikurs, Rudolph, *The Challenge of Marriage.* New York, Duell, Sloane, and Pearce, 1946.

An excellent account of how parent relationships affect children.

Fisher, Dorothy C., and Sidonie M. Gruenberg, *Our Children: A Handbook for Parents.* New York, Viking, 1932.

A collection of excellent essays by outstanding educators and psychologists. It has a sound approach to the problems of discipline.

Flügel, J. C., *Psychoanalytic Study of the Family*. New York, Stechert, 1921.

An early, sound scientific study of the family from the Freudian viewpoint. Teachers need to know about the foundations of dynamic psychology. This book helps to give such a background.

Foster, Josephine C., and John E. Anderson, *The Young Child and His Parents*. Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1930.

This is a study of one hundred case histories. It is interesting to read to see how different the child development approach is from that of child guidance and dynamic understanding.

Garrison, Charlotte Gans, and Emma Dickson Sheehy, *At Home With Children: The Guide to Preschool Play and Training*. New York, Henry Holt, 1943.

This book is full of practical suggestions to parents about home care of the preschool child. Not very useful to teachers.

Gruenberg, Sidonie Matsner, *We, the Parents*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1939.

Mrs. Gruenberg is director of the Child Study Association of America, which has maintained through the years a position of outstanding leadership in parent education. This book reflects a mature, informed attitude and reveals a truly enlightened knowledge of children. The chapter on discipline is especially good.

Isaacs, Susan, *Troubles of Children and Parents*. London, Methuen and Company, 1948.

Very helpful answers to parents' questions. Valuable for teachers also.

Langdon, Grace, *Home Guidance for Young Children*, rev. ed. New York, John Day, 1931.

A revised edition of an early work that is more helpful to parents than to teachers. Does not have the dynamic approach of modern psychology, but has good feeling for children.

Levy, David M., M.D., *Maternal Overprotection*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1943.

From a study of a number of children in a Child Guidance

Clinic an interesting report has been written. The theoretical approach under which the work was done is dynamic and not orthodox Freudian.

Levy, John, M.D., and Ruth Monroe, *The Happy Family*. New York, Knopf, 1938.

A readable account of some of the conflicts of family life and how they can be met. Psychoanalytic and written from a man's point of view, but helpful toward understanding how complex family conflicts are.

Wolf, Anna W. M., *The Parents' Manual: A Guide to the Emotional Development of Young Children.* New York, Simon and Schuster, 1941.

This book, written by a staff member of the Child Study Association of America, is of the dynamic school of thought and more clearly reflects the influence of Freud. While written for parents, teachers can get a good deal from it because the origins of behavior are well presented.

18

Finances

THE MAJOR COST of nursery education is salaries, as we all know. Other costs can be grouped for our discussion under five headings: Rent, Operation, Food, Supplies, and Repairs. Let us now consider how to estimate a school budget. Operation costs will include heat, light, garbage disposal, telephone, and water. Under a system of public schools these costs would be prorated as part of the general overhead. Privately operated philanthropic schools have such a variety of situations regarding rental costs that no general estimate for a budget can be made here. Estimates for costs of light, heat, water, telephone, and garbage, are also of such individual character that they cannot be set for discussion purposes. Nor can repairs and improvements to buildings be estimated in making a general budget. Our budget discussion will therefore refer only to estimates for salaries, food, school supplies, and repairs to equipment. Since these items represent such a large proportion of the total cost, this procedure is satisfactory for our purposes.

STAFF SALARIES

Salaries in nursery school should be quoted at an annual rate, but should be paid according to hours actually worked. The reason for this is that the day's work may be three hours or ten hours instead of the scheduled eight, and so a day's pay for a day's work cannot be regularly established and adhered to. Teachers who are scheduled for one shift may have to come early or stay late or even take

a split shift to insure adequate staff at all times. When teachers are paid for actual hours of work, rather than for scheduled hours, no one works without being paid and no one is paid for work not done. Teacher absence is inevitable and of such frequency that the need for overtime from staff members is a regular affair. In our schools the hours of actual work of various staff members has varied greatly each month. The maximum and the mininum hours for which staff members were paid in 1947 were:

	Minimum	Maximum
Jan.	26	177
Feb.	3	175
March	41	186
April	9	174
May	30	179
June	26	201
July	32	188
Aug.	72	176
Sept.	20	176
Oct.	24	177
Nov.	21	163
Dec.	29	173

The lack of uniformity in number of hours of work is due to several reasons. When a teacher gives notice of intended absence, a substitute can sometimes be secured, but on the whole a teacher's absence of one or two days is better taken care of by having other teachers do overtime rather than by bringing in a substitute. Unlike the regular school, the nursery school cannot always use substitutes even for the rare occasions when they are available. A substitute who is not familiar with the children is sometimes more trouble than she is worth, because she may upset the children and make more work for the regular teachers than they would have without her presence.

Because teachers frequently must do overtime work, they must be paid for it if expected to do it willingly. However, when teachers are paid a regular day's pay and then overtime, there may develop a tendency to create overtime situations for building up income. Overtime can become a big item of expense, unless overtime pay is balanced in the budget by deduction from the absent

teacher's pay. When teachers know that overtime is expected only to the amount of absent time, they coöperate to see that costs are not unnecessarily run up. However, it is impossible to have every teacher come and go on prearranged schedule, as in the regular school, because there is no guarantee that all children will come or go exactly on time as they do in the grades. Thus, a teacher must expect to stay whatever length of overtime is needed, but she must not be expected to donate her time.

A few teachers will always be unwilling or unable to change schedules or do overtime. They have home duties, limited energies, or transportation problems which make an overtime assignment almost impossible to accept. Others are always willing and able to stay beyond scheduled hours. Overtime should of course be paid to those who do it. Teachers vary in ability to be on time, in need for time off for illness, for visiting the dentist, or for home duties, and therefore an inequality of pay results unless every hour of absence entails a pay deduction. There are teachers who tend to shirk and others who tend to overwork or carry the load. However, there can be no insistence that teachers adhere without fail to a regular schedule, because the school too often requests a change of shift, or schedule, and so a certain flexibility must prevail.

The hourly rate of pay makes it possible to reduce costs when enrollment is low by letting teachers get time off. It allows for teachers to go home early, come late, take a day or part of a day off, as fluctuations of attendance make teacher absence possible. No one can be accused of shirking if the request for time off shows willingness to have no pay for it. There will be teachers who feel that economically they can seldom take such time off, there will be others who welcome time off because they can afford the loss of pay entailed. The latter are the ones who put in the full regular daily hours largely because the school needs their services.

When teachers realize that the nature of the nursery school situation accounts for an hourly rather than a monthly salary, and that their employment is on a permanent basis and in no sense a day to day affair, they do not feel that they are working for wages instead of a salary. The foregoing explanation has been given largely to offset the prejudice that may exist in the mind of the reader for our method of estimating salary budgets. Further discussion of the subject has already been given in the chapter on Organization.

A salary must be quoted to an employee both in annual and hourly sums. Thus a teacher who receives $2400 a year is told that she receives so much an hour for a certain number of days of eight hours each of teaching. For example, our schools were open 258 days in 1948, there being 5 holidays besides Saturdays and Sundays. No pay is given for holidays, for two reasons. First, the temporary staff members would be on equal footing with regular ones if this were done, and such treatment is somewhat unfair to older employees. Secondly, the hourly rate of pay would be lowered if vacation days were included in the computation, and this would mean that teachers are paid less for overtime. Thus a teacher receiving a $2400 annual salary receives $1.16 per hour for 258 times 8 hours, or for 2064 hours of teaching. Her actual salary will be more or less than $2400 depending upon how many hours she actually teaches. These may be over or under the 2064 hours. Teachers are paid for 6 days of 8 hours each, or 48 hours, of sick leave, and for 22 days of 8 hours each, or 176 hours, of vacation time. Twenty-two days is approximately 1/12 of the year's 258 days. Since it is necessary to schedule substitutes for the long vacation absence of a teacher, the annual salary of a teacher or of every teacher scheduled must show in the budget for these 22 days more, or for 280 days, as in the case of our schools in 1948. Full substitute pay for sick leave is not budgeted, because substitutes cannot usually be had, but some overtime of other teachers must be allowed for. We estimate about 24 hours per teacher, bringing the total paid hours, per teacher budgeted, to 2264 per year. If a teacher substitutes for herself for vacation, she receives the substitute's pay. It sometimes happens that a teacher does not care to take her full vacation, and it can be that this is a welcome choice to the school which finds suitable substitutes unavailable. Our teaching salary budget will therefore show that a $2400 a year teaching position must be budgeted for $2627.40 actual cost.

Since $2400 is the minimum teacher's salary in the public schools of California, that figure can be used for our discussion here as the lowest salary. To estimate a budget, the number of children in a school must be known. We shall use a school having four sessions enrolling 40 children as follows: 9:30 to 11:30, 6 children; 9:00 to 1:00, 6 children; 9:00 to 4:00, 12 children; and 7:00 to 6:30, 16 children. The teaching costs would then be:

2 teachers	@ $1.16 per hr. =	$2400; budgeted at	$2627 =	$	5254
2 teachers	@ 1.33 per hr. =	2750; budgeted at	3016 =		6032
1 teacher	@ 1.45 per hr. =	3000; budgeted at	3290 =		3290
5 teachers		TOTAL			$14,576

The annual per capita cost of teaching would thus be $364 in this situation.

Housekeepers, cooks, and janitors are budgeted in the same fashion. In our schools housekeepers and cooks work a seven-hour day and are paid $1.00 per hour, so that the annual cook's or housekeeper's salary for 1948 would be 258 times 7 or $1806, and is budgeted for this amount plus 22 times 7 or 154 vacation hours, plus 3 times 7 or 21 sick-leave hours, making a total of 1981 hours, or $1981. The janitor's wage at $1.25 per hour comes to $1020 per year and is budgeted for $1088. So the per capita costs for 40 children enrolled as stated above are:

For teaching staff	$364.00
For non-teaching staff	101.00
For total staff	$465.00

SUPERVISORY COSTS

Costs of supervision must be prorated according to the number of schools, the number of children served, and the type of supervision provided. Here we come to the problem of how much technical and teaching supervision is justifiable in the budget, over and above the administrative supervision responsible for management. Each actual situation will be governed by a number of factors. Medical supervision is required by law in many states. Where children are referred to private physicians or public clinics for initial health examinations, the medical services required by a school can be reduced to monthly visits from the school physician. He can examine any children who have not been examined elsewhere, observe the general state of affairs in the school, and be available for questions from the teachers. Such service is not expensive, and is budgeted for $20 per month per school in the Golden Gate schools. When the medical supervision is prorated by schools, as in a public school system where the regular school physician services the nursery school, the cost is not great.

Expense of nutritional supervision is not warranted unless a school system is so large or shopping problems are so complex that one person's full working time is needed for this. Planning standard menus and doing routine buying need not be too time-consuming. State departments of health, of social welfare and of education often have nutrition consultants that could give service at no cost to school systems. As we have seen, in the chapter on Nutrition, the making of suitable menus and the supervision of cooking can be done at no extra expense if the head teachers and supervisor are made responsible. Suitable menus and recipes can be obtained from books and from competent nutritionists. In public school systems, the nursery school menus could be made by the school's general nutritionist. In our schools the supervisor makes the menus and does the wholesale buying. The cooks make certain day-to-day purchases.

Psychologists, social workers, and research workers can certainly all be eliminated from the budget unless money is plentiful or given for the express purpose of engaging such special workers.

Technical supervision for the nursery school is essential, but a supervisor may also be a director or administrative head as well. Where the director is not a nursery school technician, a trained and experienced one must also be employed. For small systems, such as the one represented in the three Golden Gate Nursery Schools, one supervisor can be both administrator and technical director. Where the nursery schools are a part of the regular public school system, as in Vallejo, the administrative problems are all cared for by the system, by the school's departments of maintenance, supply, and personnel. Only a technical supervisor may be needed in such a situation. Her salary should not be more than twice as much as any teacher's. Thus when teachers' salaries begin at $2400, a salary of $4000 to $6000 is adequate for a supervisor, depending upon how many schools are supervised. Unless the technician is well qualified by experience and training, she should be paid only slightly more than the teachers. Administrative directors should not be paid more than qualified technicians. The number of units in the nursery school system might be a guide for setting an administrator's salary, but should not be used exclusively for setting the technician's. The reason for this is that nursery education can be done as an intensive or as an extensive job. Because the public program is in its begin-

ning stages, there is great need for certain intensive jobs to be done by school districts so inclined. Therefore, the salary paid to the technician should be in accordance with her training, her ability, the number of schools served, and the exceptional character of the work done.

The supervisor or administrator must have at least one secretary, even in a small system. Her salary must be charged to the per capita costs of the schools.

The Annual Budget

Getting back to our sample budget, we now add to the costs of cooks, housekeepers, janitors, and teachers, a physician, a secretary, and a supervisor. These would total as follows in a school where forty children are enrolled in the four sessions:

5 teachers	$14,576.00	
1 cook, 1 hskpr., 1 janitor	4,700.00	
1 physician	240.00	
1 supervisor (for 4 schools)	1,000.00	at ¼ of $4000
1 secretary (for 4 schools)	550.00	at ¼ of $2200
Total	$21,066.00	

This brings the annual per capita cost for personnel to $524. Where a school or small group of schools has no supervisor or administrator and the head teacher or teachers are responsible for all technical decisions, some per capita saving is achieved. But this is warranted only when the school system is responsible for management and the head teachers are well qualified.

Food costs at 1947 high prices were $76 per enrolled child, per year for the menus listed in the appendix. The cost of food eaten by staff members is included in this. Household and school supplies will be about $20 per year, adding a $96 per capita cost per child, and making a total of $620 for salaries, food, and school supplies. Repairs needed to keep equipment in good condition should be estimated at about $3 per capita. As said before rent and operating costs are too individual to be estimated theoretically. The annual per capita costs will run from $623 upward, depending upon what rent and operation costs must be taken into account.

Let us now consider how the per capita costs would look if 50 children instead of 40 were enrolled as stated above. One more

teacher at $2627 a year and $960 more for food and supplies would have to be added, but that is all, so that the per capita costs drop from $623 to $570. If 60 children were enrolled in the school, the increased cost would be another $2627 for a second added teacher and $960 for food and supplies, making a total budget of $32,080 and a per capita cost of $534. Thus you see that the operation of a nursery school unit for less than 60 children means relatively high per capita cost. The reason is that a cook who must be on duty from breakfast through lunch can cook for 60 as well as for 40 in the number of hours she is needed on the job.[1] The housekeeper and janitor will have to do about the same work for 40 as for 60 children, and rental, operational, and supervisional costs do not go up with this increased enrollment. Only more teaching hours and more food and supplies are needed. The increased per capita costs of the school with low enrollment are in no way compensated by improved service because in both schools children receive comparable service.[2]

Let us examine income possibilities in a school with an enrollment of forty children and a fee scale as follows:

6 children from 9:30 to	11:30 at	$20.00 per month is	$	120.00
6 children from 9:00 to	1:00 at	30.00 per month is		180.00
12 children from 9:00 to	4:00 at	40.00 per month is		480.00
16 children from 7:00 to	6:00 at	50.00 per month is		800.00
				$1580.00

For 40 children the per capita income per year is $474.00, and the per capita cost is upward of $623.00, leaving a per capita deficit of $149.

For 50 children the picture is:

8 children from 9:30 to	11:30 at	$20.00 per month is	$	160.00
8 children from 9:00 to	1:00 at	30.00 per month is		240.00
14 children from 9:00 to	4:00 at	40.00 per month is		560.00
20 children from 7:00 to	6:00 at	50.00 per month is		1000.00
				$1960.00

[1] See chapter on Organization, page 59.

[2] Discussion as to the desirability of having so many children in one school is given in the chapter on Organization, page 71.

The per capita income is $468.00 and the per capita cost is $570, leaving a per capita deficit of $102.00.

For 60 children the picture is:

10 children	from 9:30	to 11:30	at $20.00	per month is	$ 200.00
10 children	from 9:00	to 1:00	at 30.00	per month is	300.00
17 children	from 9:00	to 4:00	at 40.00	per month is	680.00
23 children	from 7:00	to 6:00	at 50.00	per month is	1150.00
					$2330.00

The per capita income is $464.00; the per capita cost is $534.00; the per capita deficit is $70.00.

By increasing fees somewhat for 50 children, the picture changes as follows:

8 children	from 9:30	to 11:30	at $25.00	per month is	$ 200.00
8 children	from 9:00	to 1:00	at 40.00	per month is	320.00
14 children	from 9:00	to 4:00	at 50.00	per month is	700.00
20 children	from 7:00	to 6:00	at 60.00	per month is	1200.00
					$2420.00

The per capita income is $580.00; the per capita cost is $570.00; the per capita surplus is $10.00.

For 60 children the picture is as follows:

10 children	from 9:30	to 11:30	at $25.00	per month is	$ 250.00
10 children	from 9:00	to 1:00	at 40.00	per month is	400.00
17 children	from 9:00	to 4:00	at 50.00	per month is	850.00
23 children	from 7:00	to 6:00	at 60.00	per month is	1380.00
					$2880.00

The per capita income is $576.00; the per capita cost is $534.00; the per capita surplus is $42.00.

Increased income can come from raising fees or enrollment. It also could be achieved by having all children enrolled for the all day session and pay full fees, for the income would then be as follows:

40 children @ $50 is $24,000
50 children @ $50 is $30,000
60 children @ $50 is $36,000

The costs for a school with 40 children in daily attendance for the 7:00 A.M to 6:00 P.M. session would be more than in the four session school. They would be the following:

	School For 40 Children	School For 50 Children	School For 60 Children
Food and supplies	$3,840	$4,800	$5,760
Repairs	120	150	180
Cook	1,981	1,981	1,981
Housekeeper	1,981	1,981	1,981
Janitor	1,088	1,088	1,088
5 Teachers	14,576	14,576	14,576
6th Teacher	2,627	2,627	2,627
7th Teacher		2,627	2,627
8th Teacher			2,627
Secretary	550	550	550
Supervisor	1,000	1,000	1,000
Physician	240	240	240
TOTAL COST	$28,003	$30,630	$33,257
INCOME	24,000	30,000	36,000
DEFICIT	$4,003	$630	SURPLUS $2,743
PER CAPITA COST	$700	$616	$554

These figures show that even if high fees are paid for full care, the deficit of a school for 40 children connot be eliminated. Approximately 60 children paying $50 per month would be needed to pay full costs of operation. There are few, if any, schools in the country which could enroll for the long-day session 60 children whose parents could all pay $50 per month per child. Community Chests, philanthropic agencies, or state funds now pay all the deficit costs of operating the long-day nursery school.

THE FOUR-SESSION SCHOOL

The four-session nursery school can operate at a lower deficit than the long-day one-session school because full fee can be collected for short-session enrollments, where it could not always be for the long-day session enrollments. A comparison of income and outgo for each type of school is here given. Costs are shown only for teaching, food, supplies and repairs to equipment. Income is based on full fees being paid.

THE ONE LONG-SESSION SCHOOL

	40 Children	50 Children	60 Children
Income at $50 fee	$24,000	$30,000	$36,000
Outgo	28,000	30,600	33,257
Deficit	4,003	30,000	
Surplus			2,743

THE FOUR-SESSION SCHOOL

	40 Children	50 Children	60 Children
Income at $20-$50	$18,960	$23,520	$27,960
Outgo	25,026	28,613	32,200
Deficit	6,066	5,093	4,240

The surplus shown from the 60 children paying $50 per month is, as we said, a mere paper possibility, and an actual impossibility. It is clear that a deficit must result in reality. The question is in which type of school will the deficit actually be lower for the sponsors of the program?

Let us suppose that the sponsor agrees to pay one-half the total costs if the parents pay the other half. Then the half of the cost for each group would be as follows:

	School for 40 Children	School for 50 Children	School for 60 Children
One-session school	$14,000	$15,300	$16,628
Four-session school	12,513	14,306	16,100

The annual per capita cost each for parent and for sponsor would thus be:

	School for 40 Children	School for 50 Children	School for 60 Children
One-session school	$350	$306	$277
Four-session school	$310	$286	$268

It would seem that both sponsor and parent would come out better in the four-session school. When the sponsor can pay half, it is clear that parents can pay the other half because $350 per year or $30 per month can ordinarily be obtained from parents, but not, however, the larger fee from parents in the one-session school. While a few parents might be able to pay as much as $50 or $60

per month, the majority of them simply could not pay nearly so much. In the four-session school, however, many parents can pay as much as $30 for only a half-day session, so that collection of fees averaging $25 to $30 from parents is possible in the four-session type school, but not in the one-session school. A child-care nursery school program offering the four sessions could therefore operate with the state or a sponsor paying approximately only half the costs. Costs would be less in schools enrolling not less than 60 children, as we have seen.

Besides saving expense to the state or any other sponsor, a four-session school is socially desirable. Children from all kinds of homes attend one school. The state-supported child-care nursery schools and the ones supported by philanthropic agencies have too many children from broken homes in one group for too long a day. This condition is psychologically damaging to children as well as economically expensive. Schools of the four-session type can serve all the nursery school needs of the neighborhood and they have the advantage over the one-session schools of being more democratic.

Quotas for enrollments for each of the four sessions in a school are set with a view to making maximum social and economic use of staff and building. The following shows quotas for a four-session school:

9:30 to 11:30	6	8	10
9:00 to 1:00	6	8	10
9:00 to 4:00	12	14	18
7:00 to 6:00	16	20	22
TOTAL CHILDREN	40	50	60

These quotas are fixed so that a stable pupil-teacher ratio is maintained throughout the day. Quotas for the 9:30 to 11:30 and the 9:00 to 1:00 sessions can be somewhat increased at no extra cost if the licensing agency permits, and if the school is well staffed and equipped. But increase of quotas for the other two sessions will increase costs because another teacher may be needed if one or two more children are enrolled.

The cost of care of the 9:30 to 11:30 children is only that of the cost of what materials they use and what equipment they break, because no extra staff is needed to supervise these children. The same is true for the 9:00 to 1:00 children, though the cost of their

lunch must be added. Thus the income from these children's fees at rates shown above helps to pay costs for the long-day children whose parents usually cannot pay full costs. The reason for this is that the scheduling of teachers from 7:00 A.M. to 6:00 P.M., for eight-hour shifts, means that from 7:00 A.M. to 10:00 A.M. and from 3:00 P.M. to 6:00 P.M. fewer teachers are on duty than from 10:00 A.M. to 3:00 P.M. when full staff is present. By allowing all children due to arrive at 9:00 or 9:30, to come as late as 10:00 if they so desire, the full attendance is reached only when the full staff is present.

In the one-session school the necessity to staff both early and late hours with enough teachers causes a surplus of teachers from 10:00 to 3:00. Herein lies one of the reasons for the high costs of the long-day nursery school. To schedule only enough teachers for the middle of the day is then not to have the children adequately supervised at the beginning and at the end of the day. The following schedules show teacher-pupil ratios in both types of schools each with a capacity of fifty children:

FOUR-SESSION SCHOOL				ONE-SESSION SCHOOL		
NO. OF TEACHERS	NO. OF CHILDREN	RATIO		NO. OF TEACHERS	NO. OF CHILDREN	RATIO
1	3	1:3	7:00– 7:30	1	5	1:5
1	8	1:8	7:30– 8:00	2	20	1:10
2	15	1:7	8:00– 8:30	3	30	1:10
4	23 up	1:6	8:30– 9:00	5	40	1:8
6	30	1:5	9:00– 9:30	5	45	1:9
6	50	1:8	9:30–10:00	6	50	1:8
6	50	1:8	10:00–11:30	7	50	1:7
6	45	1:7	11:30– 1:00	7	50	1:7
6	37	1:6	1:00– 2:00	7	50	1:7
6	37	1:6	2:00– 3:00	7	50	1:7
5	37	1:7	3:00– 3:30	6	50	1:8
5	37	1:7	3:30– 4:00	5	50	1:10
4	23	1:6	4:00– 4:30	4	40	1:10
2	15	1:7	4:30– 5:00	3	30	1:10
2	15	1:7	5:00– 5:30	2	20	1:10
1	8	1:8	5:30– 6:00	1	10	1:10

Note that in the four-session school after 7:30, the pupil-teacher ratio ranges from 1:6 to 1:8, while in the one-session school it ranges from 1:7 to 1:10. The highest ratio in the long-day school comes at the most difficult hours, the breakfast and inspection time, and the getting up from nap time; whereas in the four-session school the highest ratio is from 9:30 to 11:30 — the major play period of the day,

and following through until 1:00 o'clock when the children go to their naps, for which period the ratio is only 1:6. The ratios here given are all the maximum possible for full attendance, which is a rare thing. In terms of over-all pupil-teacher ratio the four-session school shows 6 teachers for 50 children with a ratio of 1:8 and the all-day school has 7 teachers for 50 children with a ratio of 1:7. As for the average pupil-hour teacher-hour ratio, the long-day school has 56 hours of teacher attendance for 395 hours of child attendance, or a ratio of 1:7. The four-session school has 48 teacher hours and 351 pupil hours, a ratio also of 1:7.

We may summarize this chapter by saying that from a social point of view the costs of nursery school are high; that most of those parents who need the long-day session are not able to pay the full costs; that public and philanthropic funds can go farther if they are spent for a nursery school which has the broad four-session program, rather than for one which is exclusively either just educational or just for child care; and that for financial as well as social and educational reasons, the four-session all-purpose neighborhood school enrolling sixty children is the type which should be further developed.

Selected Reading

Technical Staff Report to the Joint Committee on Preschool and Primary Training, California Legislature, 1947.

Contains some valuable statistical data about Lanham schools, but no recommendations. It is a very biased and limited discussion of nursery education, which in no way indicates its potentialities or even supports the idea of continuing child care services in the schools.

19

Records

RECORDS in the nursery school can be limited to those required by law, or enlarged to include any that are useful for operating the school, or even expanded to include many kinds of information that may be desirable if not essential to know. Since any good school will want to have more than the minimum legally required records, we shall also discuss those that fall in the other two categories. The Golden Gate Nursery Schools keep only those records which are actually useful for operating the schools. First, we shall present, explain, and discuss them; next, we shall show why we do not keep any other records.

To be useful, records for the nursery school must first of all be accurate and kept up to date. If they are to be accurate, the forms must be so clear that any teacher can fill them out. If they are to be kept up to date, someone must be assigned to keep them so. We assign most of the record-keeping to the assistant head teacher assuming that the head teacher will be familiar with them and supervise their maintenance. However, both assistant head teacher and head teacher should be able to keep the records, and regular teachers should know how to use them and how to keep them if the necessity arises. All records should, of course, be kept in places assigned for proper use and preservation.

FORMS FOR ADMISSION AND REGISTRATION

An Application for Admission Form is the first record made for any child unless there is no waiting list. In that case a registration

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

San Francisco

APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION TO Stanford SCHOOL

Mary Jones	1-23-46
Child's Name	Birthdate
Child's Name	Birthdate
212 Main St.	Ex 1-2650
Child's Address	Phone
Mary Jones	Ex 1-2650
Mother's Name	Phone
212 Main St.	teacher
Mother's Home Address	Occupation
Harry Jones	Ra 7-2061
Father's Name	Phone
460 Haley St.	salesman
Father's Home Address	Occupation

divorce - mother going to work

Reason for placing child in school

From 8⁰⁰ To 5⁰⁰ or From To	$40
Hours to be in school	*Fee requested
1/18/48	mother
Date to be admitted	Persons to be notified
1/10/48	G. B.
Date of interview	Interviewer

Telephone

Personal call ✓ Action taken Admitted O.K. R.K.

*If less than regular fee, APPLICATION FOR REDUCED FEE form must be filled out.

card is filled out at once. Our application form is illustrated below. This form is filled out by every applicant and reviewed by the person who decides on admissions. It has space for indicating whether one or two children are seeking admission. A third child is too infrequent to leave a space for, but an extra name can be written in if necessary. Birthdates are better than ages to record because the blank may be kept on file for several months. The child's address is a separate item because when compared with the mother's and the father's it tells us with whom the child lives. The mother's name, address, and phone are recorded separately from the father's to show family relationships. Reason for placement is necessary to know because the school attempts to keep a balanced enrollment of children who come for nursery education only and those who come because the home cannot take care of them.

The hours of school attendance requested can be checked with session enrollments to see if there is a vacancy. A choice is recorded, because there is often a vacancy in a short session, but not in the long one, and the recording of a choice shows whether or not the parent can get along with the shorter session enrollment. The fee amount indicates whether or not the parent can pay a full fee or requests a reduced fee on a social service basis. The next question tells us whether the mother is a housewife or is employed outside the home. The question about the father's occupation will show whether or not he is working. The date of interview is obviously desirable to have, while date of placement may be far in the future; or so urgent, that it will affect the need for acting upon the application immediately. And such action should be recorded when taken. The name of the individual conducting the interview, and whether this was done by phone or in person, should be known and recorded.

It is clear that this blank is not difficult to fill out with accuracy and that it can be read by anyone without being misunderstood. Except for the reason for placement the data is strictly factual and does not say much. It does tell at once whether or not the child fits for a vacancy as to age-level group. It is also a basis for deciding whether or not he can be considered on the fee basis, since a balance must be kept between those paying full fees and those who pay partial fees. If there is no problem of age group or room vacancy, and full fee can be paid, then the date of application will be used

for giving priority, and children admitted accordingly. For such children, no more information is needed unless they are enrolled. Thus, this blank asks a minimum of questions, which are easy to answer, cause no embarrassment, and request little information that the school does not need to know if the child is not actually enrolled. However, it does ask enough information to be an application and not just a name and address card. When the school has a long waiting list, applicants should be discouraged from making out even this form, but a person who insists on getting on the waiting list may do so.

The Application for Reduced Fee is a second form which must be filled out by parents who cannot pay the full fee to give the necessary information about the financial condition of the family. This form is filled out, together with the *Application for Admission* form when there is a waiting list. When there is no waiting list, the *Reduced Fee Form* is filled out in conjunction with the *Registration Form.* This form is intended to show why the individual cannot pay the full fee. Total income and outgo are considered in the light of the circumstances. Information regarding such circumstances we do not try to record in detail because proof of need to place the child at a reduced fee is usually clearly evident and recognized after a short interview.

The Registration Card is the form used for enrolling a child. This five by eight yellow card is kept in a small file on the desk and is used for handy reference. The first purpose for which it is designed is to enable anyone on the premises to contact the parent for any valid reason, particularly in case of illness or accident. The hours of work of the parents need to be known so that we can tell whether they are at home or work at the time we are trying to reach them. The doctor's name comes next, in case we cannot reach the parents. All this information comes first so that it is easy to see at once. The child's departure time needs to be ascertainable by any teacher if she thinks a mother is coming habitually late. Physical findings of the physician to be watched in school are rare, but need to be conspicuous on the record. When strangers call for the child, the card should be consulted before releasing him.

The reverse of this card, signed by the parent, covers certain contractual agreements between school and parent, and it records dates of admission and withdrawal as well as the reasons for with-

Form #2

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

SAN FRANCISCO

APPLICATION FOR REDUCED FEE

I request a fee of $ 40 per month instead of the regular fee of $ 5?

for my child Mary Jones
(Full name of child or of children)

My income is approximately $ 246. per month; my expenses are $ 204 per month.

My situation is as follows: My husband and I are being divorced. He drinks and does not make any regular income or give me regular allotments for Mary. I also support my mother who is 70.

Date 1/10/45 Signed Mary Jones
Parent

Fee set at $ 40 by _____

(over)

INCOME

EARNINGS		DEDUCTIONS	MOTHER	FATHER
Mother	$ 200	Social Security	$	$
Father	$ 60	Unemployment	$	$
Other income	$	Income Tax	$ 13.60	$
		Union Dues	$	$
Total Gross	$ 260			
Deductions	$	TOTAL DEDUCTIONS	$	$

TOTAL NET $ 246.40 for 3 in family.

EXPENDITURES

Rent	$ 45	Medical	$ 10
Food	$ 75	Dental	$
Carfare	$ 5	Insurance	$ 5
Light, Heat, Gas	$ 5	Auto	$
Telephone	$ 4	Entertainment	$ 10
Clothing	$ 20	Furniture	$ 15
Laundry	$ 10		$
TOTAL	$ 164	TOTAL	$ 40

TOTAL EXPENSE OF $ 204 FROM INCOME OF $ 246.40 LEAVES $ 42.40

FORM 2

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

REGISTRATION CARD FOR Stanford SCHOOL

Mary Jones	212 Main St.	1-23-46
CHILD'S NAME	ADDRESS	BIRTHDATE

Mother - Grandmother: Mrs. G. Murphy 424 Oliver - Ra 6-2031
PERSONS TO CALL IN CASE OF ILLNESS OR ACCIDENT, IN ORDER OF PREFERENCE

Mary Jones	212 Main St.	Ex 1-2650
MOTHER'S NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE
Teacher	public schools (Garfield)	Ma 4-2300
MOTHER'S WORK	FIRM	PHONE
Harry Jones	460 Haley St.	Ra 7-2061
FATHER'S NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE
salesman	Pacific Coast Tire Co.	El-2-7162
FATHER'S WORK	FIRM	PHONE

8 30 4 30	unknown	9 00	5 00
HOURS MOTHER WORKS	HOURS FATHER WORKS	CHILD'S ARRIVAL TIME	DEPARTURE TIME

James Smith	450 Sutter St.	Ma 1-2600
NAME OF CHILD'S DOCTOR	ADDRESS	PHONE

$50 $ 40
FEE REDUCED TO

PHYSICAL FINDINGS TO BE WATCHED IN SCHOOL

Mother - Grandmother — Father
PERSONS ALLOWED TO CALL FOR CHILD — PERSONS NOT ALLOWED TO CALL FOR CHILD

(OVER)

I hereby agree that if my child is accepted by the school, I will pay the monthly fee in advance by the 10th of the month, and will cooperate with the school in carrying out any requirements set for the parents. I hereby give my consent to let my child go on trips from the school grounds under proper supervision. I will notify the school of any change of information as entered on this card.

SIGNED Mary Jones

1/18/48	Mother going to work - parents divorced
DATE ADMITTED	REASON FOR ADMISSION
DATE WITHDRAWN	REASON FOR WITHDRAWAL
DATE RE-ADMITTED	REASON FOR RE ADMISSION
DATE WITHDRAWN	REASON FOR WITHDRAWAL

REMARKS:

A medical form must be filled out to make this application complete. A personal interview with the child and one parent is a pre-admission requirement. The school reserves the right of dropping the child after a trial period who does not fit into the school's program, or whose parent does not cooperate with the school.

GOLDEN GATE KINDERGARTEN ASSOCIATION

drawing. Again you see that this record is simple, factual, easy to fill out and to interpret. It asks no embarrassing questions, reveals no confidential information, and is a convenient record that is useful for many purposes. This record must always be filled out before the child is left at school for the first day, for that is the very day it may start being useful. The *Registration Card* and the *Medical Form* are the two records which must be on file and kept up to date at all times. When parents pay monthly fees, they are asked if there is any change of information for the *Registration Card* so that it can be recorded at once. Pencil and not ink is used in filling out this form so that changes can be made easily. Its information is for current use and not for statistical or other purposes.

The Medical Form is also on a five by eight card of a different color and is filed next to the *Registration Card* under the child's name. Medical records can also be filed in a separate box because they are handled less often and used mostly by the school doctor who is not interested in the other forms. The *Medical Form* explains itself. It is reduced to this minimum prescribed by law, to make it more acceptable to private physicians who are asked to fill it in, and who sometimes refuse or object to filling in a longer, more complicated blank. It is also in keeping with our idea that a few accurate records are better than elaborate, inaccurate ones. This card is given to the parent to take to the private physician for the regular examinations required by law at intervals of six months. Envelopes are provided to keep the blank clean and to facilitate mailing. The school physician uses this form for recording both initial and subsequent examinations made in school. Teachers record immunization dates upon presentation of evidence by the parents. Teachers also record any illnesses specified on the blank as they occur while the child is enrolled in the school. This record can and should be given to the parent when the child is withdrawn from the school. It will be a fairly reliable one because it is simple enough to be accurately kept. It may come as a surprise to the reader to learn that the *Registration Card* and the *Medical Card* are the only personal records on the children that our schools keep. Our reasons for this are discussed later in this chapter.

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

MEDICAL RECORD

Name of Child Mary Jones Sex F Birthdate 1/23/46

Address of Child 212 Main St.

Name of Mother Mary Jones Name of Father Harry Jones

IMMUNIZATIONS AND TESTS

	Date	Date	Date	Booster
Pertussis	1/3/47	2/15/47	3/20/47	1/15/48
Diptheria Toxoid	1/3/47	2/15/47	3/20/47	1/15/48
Tetanus Toxoid				

	Date	Result
Small pox	1/20/47	Take
Tetanus AntiToxin		
Chest X-ray		

Tuberculin

	Date	Reading
1.	1/15/48	neg.
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

DATES OF DISEASE HISTORY

Whooping Cough ...not...
Diptheria ...not...
Chickenpox 12/10/47
Measles ...not...
Mumps ...not...
Scarlet Fever ...not...
Running Ear ...not...
Frequent colds ...not...
Rheumatic Fever ...not...
German Measles ...not...
Known Allergies ...not...
Tonsillitis ...yes...
Asthma ...not...
T. B. Contact ...not...
Tonsillectomy ...not...
Other Operation ...not...

I hereby certify that this child is physically fit to attend nursery school.

Date 1/15/48 James Smith M.D.

PHYSICAL FINDINGS

DATE	1/15/48					
Nutrition	good					
Eyes	neg					
Ears	neg					
Nose	neg					
Throat	enlarged tonsils					
Heart	neg					
Skin	neg					
Other	neg					

Recomm. Tonsilectomy at later date

FORM LETTER TO CHILD'S PHYSICIAN

Dear Doctor:

According to the rulings of the Board of Health, no child may be admitted to nursery school until we have a record of disease history and physical findings from a physician. The child must also have had at least the first doses of immunization for diphtheria and whooping cough, must have been vaccinated against smallpox, and have a record of a negative tuberculin test, or a record of a negative X-ray following a positive tuberculin test. Such tuberculin readings must be done annually. The Board of Health requires that at least one booster dose be given within a year after the last date of immunization.

We will appreciate it if you will see that this card is properly filled out for our record and if you will coöperate in giving the necessary medical service to your patient to make him eligible for nursery school. Please fill out the first column on the back of the card, also. This record is given to the parent when the child leaves school and becomes a valuable document for future reference. We have, therefore, kept it simple and easy to fill out accurately.

Thank you for your interest and service.

Sincerely yours,

Office Records

The Attendance Record is required by law and is obviously useful. A loose-leaf attendance book can be used more easily for compiling statistics, but a bound book is safer for keeping the record intact. We use a bound book two pages of which are reproduced below. Names are entered alphabetically, last name first, and newcomers are added at the end. For each of the four daily sessions a separate roll list is made. A check is made for recording "present"; an "A" with red pencil for "absent"; a "W" for "withdrawn"; an "E" for "entered"; and a "RE" for "re-entered." Totals for the day, by sessions, are thus easy to count. A summary for each day shows the number of children and the number of adults, the sum of which gives the number of lunches served. The number for the nap period is also totaled. The purpose of the roll book is the keeping of an accurate record of attendance. This is needed for estimating per

ATTENDANCE RECORD FOR_____, 19_____

	M	T	W	Th	F	S	S		S	M	T
CHILD'S NAME	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		28	29	30
1											
2											
3											
4											
5											
6											
7											
8											
9											
10											
11											
12											
Total Children											
Total Adults											
No. lunches served											
No. sleepers											

capita costs, figuring pupil-teacher ratios, making refunds to parents for absence, and for other purposes such as giving data for monthly reports of absences for illness which must be sent to the Department of Public Health.

A Receipt Form is essential to have to give to the parents upon

payment of fee. Receipts should be numbered, kept in bound books, and made out in duplicate or triplicate. Every receipt must be accounted for to the auditor. When one is voided, all copies are retained for the auditor. The parent gets the original, the school keeps the duplicate in the book. In our schools the triplicate goes to the bookkeeper to whom the money is turned over and who sees to it that the amount of money matches the total receipts issued. Printed receipt books save time in writing — an important thing on a Monday morning. Receipts can be issued when the money is paid, or they can be left in a box on the desk for parents to take at the end of the day. A big system may not be in a position to afford such an informal procedure, but for us it has worked out without any complaints from parents. This informality is almost a necessity in a situation where the teacher examines the children, accepts the fees, and supervises the morning rest period — all at the same time. Of course, receipts must always be made out on the same day that the money is paid. While books with such receipt forms are expensive, they are the only ones which insure easy and accurate bookkeeping. Books with stubs are not good unless ink is used. Even then they are not as convincing to parents and auditors as an actual duplicate.

In order to make it unnecessary to look through old duplicate receipts to see how any parent's account with the school stands, a one-sheet record for each child is kept. This form is self-explanatory. One notebook holds all these letter-size sheets, arranged alphabetically.

Monthly enrollments according to amount of fees paid is summarized on a simple form illustrated below to aid the quick compilation of annual statistics.

Golden Gate Kindergarten Association
SAVE YOUR RECEIPTS
No 1289

_____ 194__

Received of _____

For tuition for _____

_____ Dollars $_____

For period beginning _____ and ending _____

CHECK ☐
CASH ☐

PHOEBE HEARST NURSERY SCHOOL

_____ BALANCE DUE $_____ By _____

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

San Francisco

Child's Name_____ Address_____

Mother's Name_____ Address_____

Rate per month_____ School_____

MONTH	AMOUNT DUE	CREDIT ALLOWANCE	PREVIOUS BALANCE	TOTAL DUE	AMOUNT PAID	DATE OF PAYMENT	BALANCE STILL DUE

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

San Francisco

MONTHLY ENROLLMENT OF CHILDREN ACCORDING TO FEES PAID

Month_____

School _____

	9:30 to 11:30	9:00 to 1:00	9:00 to 4:00	7:00 to 6:00	TOTAL
$ 5.					
$10.					
$15.					
$20.					
$25.					
$30.					
$35.					
$40.					
$45.					
$50.					
TOTAL					

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

San Francisco

MONTHLY TIME RECORD

NAME Mary Jones

POSITION teacher

SCHOOL Stanford

PAY PERIOD FROM July 1 TO July 31

SIGNED Helen Smith (Head Teacher)

SIGNED Supervisor

HOURS OF WORK

DATE	DAY	FROM	TO	TOTAL
	MON			
	TUES			
	WED			
7/1	THURS	9:00	5:00	8
2	FRI	9:00	5:00	8
	SAT			
TOTAL HOURS				16
5	MON	Holiday		
6	TUES	9:00	5:00	8
7	WED	8:30	5:00	8 1/2
8	THURS	9:00	5:00	8
9	FRI	9:00	5:00	8
	SAT			
TOTAL HOURS				32 1/2
12	MON	Absent (SL)		
13	TUES	" (SL)		
14	WED	" (No SL)		
15	THURS	" (No SL)		
16	FRI	9:00	3:00	6
	SAT			
TOTAL HOURS				6

HOURS OF WORK

DATE	DAY	FROM	TO	TOTAL
19	MON	9:00	5:00	8
20	TUES	9:00	5:00	8
21	WED	9:00	6:00	9
22	THURS	9:00	5:15	8 1/4
23	FRI	8:30	4:30	8
	SAT			
TOTAL HOURS				41 1/4
26	MON	9:00	5:00	8
27	TUES	9:00/1:00	3:00/6:00	7
28	WED	Vacation		
29	THURS	Vacation		
30	FRI	Vacation		
	SAT			
TOTAL HOURS				15

16
32 1/2
6
41 1/4
15
110 3/4
16 sick leave
24 vacation
150 3/4

150 3/4
x 1.25
750
300
150
187.50
.94
188.44
-20.10 tax
$168.34

The use of time sheets has already been explained in the chapter on Organization. Time sheets are mimeographed on letter-size paper, and the empty space at the bottom on the right hand side is used by the bookkeeper to figure hourly totals, income tax deductions. In this way the treasurer, before signing any checks, can see at a glance how the amount of the salary check was arrived at.

Nine record forms have now been presented. There are nine more in use in our schools, and so you see that even our simple record system has eighteen forms — quite enough for teachers to keep. *The Teacher's Rating Chart* and its use is discussed under Staff, and *the Inventory Form* is presented in the Appendix on Materials. An *Insurance Form* for reporting accidents covered by insurance is provided by the insurance company. *A Monthly Report on Illnesses* is made on forms provided by the San Francisco Department of Public Health, which — like that in most cities — requires a report from nursery schools. *A Monthly Attendance Report* on the Children's Bureau forms goes to the Bureau via the Community Chest.

All employees are required to have physical examinations by a physician and a chest X-ray before being allowed to work in the school. *Our Employee's Physical Examination Form* for this record of health findings is illustrated below.

The Teacher's Education and Experience Record is filled out by teachers on application.

The Clothing Record is a form which is so simple that it can hardly be called a form. It concerns borrowed school clothing, and is made to look official so as to display our insistence that the clothing be returned to us. The record of these loans is kept on the bulletin board both as a reminder for forgetful parents and as a safeguard against misunderstandings. The return of a garment is easily made a matter of record when the form is available in this fashion instead of being filed away somewhere.

The last form is a simple one used by the school doctor for sending notes to the parents to recommend any treatment or referral to the family physician.

Every single record form reproduced above was finally adopted only after it had been found to be useful. These forms were frequently remade as our experience showed them to be inefficient, and in their present form they suit our purpose quite well. These

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

San Francisco

EMPLOYEES PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT _____ AGE _____

EMPLOYED AT _____ AS _____
Name of School

IS FREE FROM COMMUNICABLE DISEASE.

GENERAL APPEARANCE _____

SKIN _____ HEAD _____ EYES _____

EARS _____ NOSE _____ MOUTH _____

TEETH _____ TONGUE _____ PHARYNX _____

BLOOD PRESSURE _____

HEART _____

COMMENTS _____

_____

_____

DATE _____ SIGNATURE _____ M.D.

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS

San Francisco

TEACHERS EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE RECORD

NAME _____ AGE _____

ADDRESS _____ CITY _____ STATE _____

MARITAL STATUS: single___, married___, separated___, divorced___, widowed___

EDUCATION:	YEARS COMPLETED	NAME OF SCHOOL	DEGREE, DATE
GRAMMAR	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
HIGH SCHOOL	1 2 3 4		
JUNIOR COLLEGE	1 2		
UNIVERSITY OR COLLEGE	1 2 3 4		

SPECIAL COURSES:

GRADUATE COURSES:

EMPLOYMENT RECORD:

FROM Mo-Yr	TO Mo-Yr	OCCUPATION - Describe any nursery school work, functions, age levels, etc.	EMPLOYER

Date _____

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS
San Francisco

CLOTHING RECORD

CHILD'S NAME	ARTICLE	DATE TAKEN HOME	DATE RETURNED
~~Peter B.~~	~~pants~~	~~1-23-48~~	~~1-27-48~~
Mary L.	pants	1-23-48	
~~Jane~~	~~pants~~	~~2-1-48~~	~~2-5-48~~
~~Susan~~	~~overalls~~	~~2-1-48~~	~~2-2-48~~
Frederick	pants shirt overalls	2-2-48	

eighteen forms seem to be the minimum we must have for smooth operation. Not one of them is a piece of red tape unless the legal authorities, to whom some of them go, treat them as such. The point to be made here is that even the simplest record system involves considerable work. When it is noticed that we keep no b.m. charts, no record of food eaten, no sleep charts, and no other behavior records, the reader will realize that we have reduced records to an almost unheard of minimum.

Practical Record-Keeping

Presenting the records that we keep has been a simple matter. Now we must try to explain something more difficult, and that is why we do not keep any records other than the ones presented here. This requires some discussion of theory and practice. Before stating the arguments against further record-keeping, however, it must be pointed out that there are conditions and circumstances under

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS
San Francisco

Dear Mrs. Smith

I have today examined your child and find his tonsils are enlarged

I recommend consultation with your doctor.

Stanford
School

Alfred Jones M. D.
School Physician

which it can be satisfactorily done. The question is whether or not present-day public nursery schools are able to do so.

Keeping records costs money. Teachers must be paid for the time required to write records as well as for time required to read them. Since most nursery schools do not have unlimited budgets, but in fact have very restricted ones, the cost in itself is already a valid deterrent to keeping more records than absolutely necessary. But it is not primarily the cost that deters us from so doing. Costs prevent us from getting more toilets, more yard space, and certain

pieces of more expensive equipment, but cost would not be enough to prevent us from keeping more records. What does prevent us is our conviction that more record-keeping is undesirable in itself, because in the situation of the public nursery school all but the simplest factual records are deceptive by their very nature, and therefore a danger rather than a benefit to the schools.

Any record is unreliable as a source of information if it is not accurately kept, but records can also be deceptive even when properly kept. We refer to records which attempt to record behavior of parents, teachers, and children, and not to simple factual records of the type just presented. When any record is kept on a form or blank, listed items must be checked, or answered by a few words which will be subject to interpretation later on. Let us look at one of the simplest checking record forms of this type, say that for recording b.m.'s after a list of names posted in the toilet. A check after a child's name would carry the implication of a normal bowel movement and might be misleading because it would not take into account a possible irregularity such as a constipated or loose movement. A system with three columns – constipated, loose, normal – would be quite hard to fill in because only the extremes of constipated and loose are easy to judge and significant for purposes of follow-up treatment. Therefore, to be suitable, such a chart would have to consist of at least five columns: constipated, somewhat constipated, normal, somewhat loose, and loose, if a simple check mark is to be kept from being easily misinterpreted. But even such an elaborate chart would not reveal quantity, presence of undigested food, or odor – all important aspects of the child's bowel movement. A chart which tried to register all these would become so complicated and so difficult for teachers to keep accurately, that it would be unreliable because of its complexity. So you can see that the check system, which works admirably for telling whether or not a child put in an appearance at school on a certain day, does not work when it comes to recording the nature of his elimination in school.

A record where words are written in instead of a check mark might be better, but for such records a standard vocabulary would have to be used, or they would not mean anything. A b.m. chart which used *fine*, *O.K.*, *poor*, *plenty*, or *not enough*, or similar words, would have to be interpreted before they would mean anything

except to the recorder. This would lead to the necessity of using code words, and a code system would quickly become streamlined into a check system in a situation where time is limited. And so we come back to the fact that under the working conditions of the nursery school even a simple-looking behavior situation cannot be reliably described.

Furthermore, a behavior record can be unreliable even when the form is appropriate in a general way, if the specific questions are too difficult to answer reliably. For example, a report form might be devised to state what amounts of each kind of food a child has eaten on a given day, and, under certain circumstances, it would be filled out reliably. But a form which attempted to record appetite, enjoyment of food, or behavior at the table could not be reliably filled out by a teacher.

It is very hard for many teachers to fill out the slips which some schools send home to parents. As an example take the following one regarding the lunch where the teacher must check or answer with words:

He enjoyed his lunch .....
He ate with some help .....
He did not seem hungry .....

First of all, these sentences do not cover the three degrees on a scale of good-to-poor eating, that they are intended to: first, the child ate well; second, the teacher had to keep after him; third, he didn't eat much. Now the greatest enjoyment some children can have at lunch is to be allowed to eat practically nothing and not be nagged about it; so if enjoyment were recorded, then it would not necessarily mean that a certain amount of food was eaten. To say "He ate with some help" does not mean anything unless it means that the teacher held the spoon to the child's mouth, because the whole lunch procedure "helps" all the children with their eating. A child may not seem hungry, but nevertheless eats everything on his plate, because he sees others do it, or because he does it habitually. Such a blank as this is offensive to a sensitive teacher, for it cannot be used to describe adequately the child's eating behavior, and certainly gives no quantity consumptions. Thus, a form such as this is totally unsatisfactory.

The inappropriateness of forms for specific situations comes from

the fact that they are usually devised by persons who have an intellectual and statistical approach to the problems involved and a faculty for eliminating factors that cannot be recorded. Administrators and research experts are forced to simplify, on paper, situations which are never quite as simple in reality. Forms for records have a practical value only when they fit the essential features of the reality situation. Even the simple forms presented in this chapter were not just thought up by the writer, but were developed during four years of actual use. Good forms must change as situations change, and they must be fitted to record actual situations.

Even when forms are quite suitable, there is another factor which makes them unreliable, the nature of the recorders. Teachers' abhorrence of record-keeping is well known. It is common knowledge that many women who are geniuses when it comes to handling children will behave almost like morons when it comes to making out records. This is partly because their natural interest is in the dynamics of the human situation itself, and not in its documentation; and partly because the form does not say enough to command their respect.

A record which is a mechanical form and does not provide for registering a teacher's evaluation of behavior, but asks for factual data which the teacher may consider unimportant and of which she may be even somewhat unaware, will also be very objectionable to her. For example, she may know that a child has had a successful lunch, but she may not be able to say for certain how much of every menu item he consumed, nor does she consider it important. When confronted with what seems to her an inappropriate form, for example, a teacher may feel frustrated, and put down check marks more or less arbitrarily in order to get through with it. Afterwards she will probably feel guilty, and quite rightly so for the record is intended to be taken seriously. If the teacher overcompensates for her feeling of guilt by being very painstaking and elaborate about certain records, she will end up being angered at the amount of time that is consumed, and she will not be able to conquer that feeling of inadequacy which record-keeping gives her.

Forms can still produce unreliable records when their specific nature is suitable, and when teachers are not antagonized by them, because the recording situation is too difficult to control reliably. Once again take the b.m. chart for illustration. A child may go to

the toilet by himself, or flush it before the teacher verifies her impression of a b.m. And certainly the child's account of his b.m. cannot be viewed as reliable. Most behavior in the nursery school occurs in situations which make recording unreliable.

The fact is that the nature of record forms, of recorders, and of situations is so complex that all behavior records are subject to suspicion. But that is only a part of the indictment against record-keeping of children's behavior. We must not overlook the fact that the effect of such recording on teachers, children, and parents may be decidedly unfavorable. The effect on parents is stated in the chapter concerning them, so we shall consider here the effect upon teachers and children.

As we have seen, teachers may be antagonized by frustrating forms, and teachers' negative reactions certainly are not an asset. Teachers also resent the expenditure of money for recording instead of for teaching, especially when teaching time must be taken to make records. The head teacher, who should be the best technician in the school, feels her talents are wasted if she is put to record-keeping, while a mere clerk is seldom able to make good records because she does not understand the children. A competent, trained record-keeper is usually not welcome because time-consuming discussion and interpretation of behavior must take place between the recorder and the teachers. The intuitive teacher understands her children but may be quite unable to express her understanding in recordable terms. Where recorders may direct observations of children, teachers may resent recorded results. Where recorders must get some teacher consensus, the job often becomes hopeless and is always time-consuming. Frictions within the staff can easily develop when unanimity of teacher opinion is required before a record can be considered reliable. The teaching situation, on the other hand, never requires such complete agreement. Since teacher harmony is so essential in nursery school, it follows that any record-keeping which is disturbing would have to possess enormous value to offset the harm it can cause.

If behavior records are kept by a school, teachers should be familiar with them, but under ordinary circumstances they do not have time to do much about that. Each teacher works with many children — between 20 and 50. Even to read an admission history for each one and keep it straight is an impossibility, let alone to

keep up with a record that is up to date. The turnover of child and teacher personnel is such that it becomes unrealistic to expect all teachers to know all children. On the other hand, if teachers look up records only of certain children, this will result in uneven information. If a supervisor, or a social worker, or a guidance person, knows all the records and talks to the teacher about them, each is likely to talk a different language. Teachers cannot easily keep their minds on teaching and at the same time think about records or behavior that the specialist wants reported for the record. Even an excellent teacher can be made to feel inadequate if pressure is exerted to obtain such information.

Disadvantages of Records

When teachers are given records to read, they do not always make good use of them. Teachers can become prejudiced against parents from reading case histories because they contain so much unpleasant data. Relationships developed without preconceived ideas derived from record information have a better chance to be friendly. It takes a good deal of training and special experience to make a person capable of interpreting a record wisely, and records cannot possibly convey to the great majority of the nursery school teachers the grim reality of the home life and background of many of our children so that they could profit from that knowledge. The teacher's attitude toward a child will be unnecessarily complicated and perhaps also affected adversely by her knowing that his father deserted the mother, and such knowledge will affect her feeling toward the mother and the child and the teaching situation. There is no advantage in her knowing about the unpleasant background when she sees the parents. A relationship built exclusively upon personal contact is preferable. It is easier for a teacher to give the parents what they need when her mind is not filled with disagreeable information about them. What she learns from her own personal contact makes for a relationship which is real. Certainly no one thinks parents should have a case history of the teachers, and teachers would not be comfortable with parents who knew all about them.

Records can prejudice teachers for and against children. This is the most serious charge against them. A record which reveals

chronic misbehavior can make a teacher feel discouraged or resentful in the very first stages of her relationship to the child. It is better to let the teacher find out from her own experience what the child's behavior is. He may be just at the point where he is ready to outgrow certain bad features, and where starting with a clean slate is a big help. We all know this to be true of older children and of adults; it is just as true of babies. It is bad enough to burden the school-age child with behavior records that are passed from one grade to another; it is more destructive to begin with the preschool age. Teachers should inquire into a child's history only if there is need to do so, and then the inquiry should be an oral one.

Let us turn now to the effect on the children which the keeping of records on their behavior entails. To the extent that the teacher is distracted from caring for the child's urgent, petty needs by having to write something down or even to have her mind on what she is supposed to see so that she will be able to write about it later — he must become resentful of this diversion of the teacher's wholehearted attention. He may misbehave just to get her attention, and this can be serious for the group atmosphere if the reaction spreads to other children. Record-keeping usually involves talking or writing about the child in his presence, it makes him self-conscious and may even produce anxiety. In fact, the writer believes that the keeping of behavior records of any kind has not only a bad effect on the children and the teachers, but also interferes with their developing good mutual relationships unless it is done under special circumstances and with great caution.

The teacher-child relationship should be warm, friendly, and spontaneous. It should be moving toward better understanding of each other. Even when it is not, it is something that is alive and in flux. Is it surprising that the keeping and studying of records hinders rather than helps the development of good teacher-child relationships? In recent years great emphasis has been placed upon the need for teachers to know something about the personal background and difficulties of each child in the classroom so that teachers may come to understand children better. However, much of the so-called understanding fostered by this method results in nothing more than feeling sorry for the children because of their troubles. Perhaps it makes them a little kinder, too. But it does not develop a wise and objective kind of understanding. Instead it pro-

motes an identifying process of a purely intellectual type. While teachers must be able to identify and to sympathize, they should also preserve their ability to respond spontaneously and directly to the child's behavior. It is this ability which is jeopardized by the impersonal attitude that record-keeping promotes, and by the effects of intellectual case-history information which the teacher cannot integrate into her personal relationship with the child.

Knowing the origins of a child's behavior helps the identifying process, but a more vital knowledge is needed by the teacher. If a biting child comes into school, the teacher's problem is to deal with the biting. It helps her little to know whether the biting is a new aggressive symptom that developed because the child's father has left home, or because a new baby brother has arrived, or because of some other reason which a psychological expert might be able to discover. The very fact of the biting tells her that something is wrong and she must meet this problem in a group situation. In the chapter on Behavior Problems, we have discussed how she tries to handle biting, and we have seen that the teacher's procedure is always the same regardless of cause. As for eliminating causes, that is a large order which the teacher cannot fill. Unless a teacher understands that a child's biting has many possible causes which are hard to ascertain, she cannot deal wisely with a given child's biting. But her understanding of all the potential causes should come from actual experience with children rather than from the study of records. The reading of records builds a foundation for a circuitous identifying process rather than for immediate emotional contact. The good teacher is the one who has reached the stage where she can quickly understand a child's behavior and its meaning in terms of the nursery school situation rather than as an item in an individual's case history. Such understanding comes from working with many children and from learning about one's own inner emotional life, and seldom comes from delving into the personal histories of the children in the very nursery school where a teacher works.

The child development research institutes of any university have nursery school records that can well be used for illustration of what kind of social or developmental history of a child can be obtained. Since they use forms covering hundreds of points of isolated information, beginning with the birthplace of the grandparents in one instance, and coming down to eight questions concerning the

daily bowel movement, their records certainly can be called comprehensive. Few schools could find out even one-tenth as much information; yet the fact remains that these records do not give enough information to enable a teacher to act upon it in a given nursery school situation. They leave vast gaps which can be filled in only by the teacher's intuition. Furthermore, there is no evidence that a teacher who knows the record has better success dealing with a child than one who has never read it. And this is not surprising, for making a relationship to the child and handling his behavior wisely is a matter that depends less upon knowing reams of particularized facts about the child than upon how one interprets his behavior on the spot.

Like all such forms, these university record forms are misleading as well as inadequate for practical use. First of all, they can seldom give important information such as the nature of family conflicts — the most important of all information, and obviously the kind that will not be obtained through questionnaires. Secondly, they often distort information by offering, as the only alternatives, a number of undefined descriptions of behavior; for instance, "interest in anatomical sex difference" one can only answer by "unaware," or by "interest," or by "excessive interest." What behavior should be called excessive? Anna Freud might not find any preschool child entirely "unaware" of sex differences, while the University research center observer obviously does. Therefore, the readers of records must belong to the same school of thought as the writers in order to interpret them without distortion. Even when this is possible, records regarding such matters as sex curiosity refer only to a given situation, and another given situation may show an entirely different picture. For instance, a child's sex behavior in the presence of his mother is very different from that in the presence of his teacher; and in one nursery school it is different from that in another. A record of sex curiosity can be so out of date in one day, that it hardly seems worth reading.

Let us take another illustration. When a child comes to school without any social record of developmental history, he makes a fresh start with a clean slate. His world is new, his emotional relationships are being vastly changed, and his behavior will reflect this change. Records about previous behavior will be misleading, because they refer to a state that is past, and no one knows what he

will do next until he has done it. The teacher should have an open mind to perceive his behavior for what it is and to evaluate it accordingly. It takes skillful, trained, psychiatric specialists to trace causes of any specific behavior and in most instances we do not need to know about them in the nursery school. No information at all is much safer than superficial and unreliable information because in this field a little knowledge is a dangerous thing. Most behavior records are semantic illusions. When we know our ignorance, we often act more wisely than when we go ahead upon the assumption that we know though in reality we do not. To know or understand another person completely is an impossible thing — this can only be approximated. To know the meaning of a child's behavior at a given moment is to know many children, or to know the ways of childhood sufficiently to be able to make on the spot a good guess, or a hunch, or an intuition — call it what you will — and to act accordingly. Too much intellectual information gets in the way of the appropriate emotional and intuitive responses of the teacher, and it can completely confuse her when it comes to explaining afterwards what she has done and why.

Science and statistical methods have created a great blind-alley approach to some of the intricate problems of psychology and education. Our technological society has greatly increased the demand for exact knowledge. But exact, or mathematically provable, knowledge often does not help us much in dealing with the situations of actual life, and certainly not in the nursery school. Mathematical science derives from man's thinking processes; human relationships are built upon feelings, sensations, and intuitions, as well as upon rational thought processes. When records of children's behavior try to be only rational, they are superficial. When they show feeling and intuition at work, they are more records of the recorder than of the recorded. In many cases they are actually dangerous, because they are usually assumed to be something which in reality they are not.

Too much of the research done in child developmental psychology is open to serious criticism as to its value in the practical situation because its method cannot be entirely reliable. The fact that the research is restricted to the conscious attitudes of children and of recorders is another limitation. It is now common knowledge that the unconscious behavior of an individual carries the motiva-

tion for much of his conscious behavior. When one considers how difficult it is to record only conscious behavior, it is no wonder that unconscious behavior must be eliminated from records. Therefore even the most elaborate reports often carry only superficial data. Research in the future will have to find better techniques for adults to use for studying children and for trying to understand them. The nursery school can contribute much to this understanding by accumulating a vast store of practical information that represents both common sense and imaginative insight. Whatever written records it produces regarding any individual must be in the nature of a narrative account, necessarily lengthy, made by teachers who have had psychiatric training and thorough first-hand knowledge of the children being accounted for. It is unfortunate that the day seems far off when nursery schools will have teachers qualified to make such reports.

Selected Reading

Landreth, Catherine, *Education of the Young Child.* New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1942.

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Nursery Schools of Tomorrow

NURSERY SCHOOLS of tomorrow will evolve out of today's schools, which in turn are the product of yesterday's. Looking back, we see that in 1928 there were 85 schools located in 24 states, each enrolling between 15 and 30 children. *The Twenty-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* reported, in 1928, that very few of the schools were philanthropic, and goes on to say (page 43) that "typical among the main objects of modern nursery schools are: to provide opportunity for controlled research, to establish experimental laboratories for the study of educational methods, to furnish facilities for training preschool teachers, to provide for the cultural and general training of college women, to train teachers of home economics, to demonstrate the best methods of child care, to permit parents to participate in the group care of little children, and to train junior and senior high-school students." This quotation may help to support the statement that our first nursery schools were established for every purpose except the primary one of educating the children. In all cases, the children's needs were more or less subordinated to the interests of the adults — in other words, the schools were adult-centered rather than child-centered. Even the philanthropic schools existed primarily to serve parents who could not keep children at home.

However, the philanthropic schools were more often able to put the children's needs first than were the research schools because the "guinea pig" angle was eliminated in their case. Yet, the more richly financed research centers were in some instances better

housed, equipped and staffed, and in a better position to give children services than the philanthropic agencies. The discrepancies in educational approach and in financial resources have made it difficult to make fair comparisons, and have caused a certain academic versus non-academic split in the nursery school movement. This split has continued through the period of the W.P.A. nursery schools and Lanham schools down to the present post-war time, for the W.P.A. and the Lanham schools were certainly not academic.

Background of the Public Nursery School

Let us go back and try to summarize what the nursery school movement has accomplished to date. The Ruggles Street Nursery School is now connected with the Nursery Training School of Boston under the direction of Dr. Abigail Eliot, and is the largest nursery training school for teachers in the country. The Bureau of Educational Experiments School evolved into the Bank Street Schools, which also gives teacher training. Through the years the college schools here mentioned have all been maintained and many new schools have been opened in other colleges. The Universities of Iowa, Columbia, Minnesota and California have extensive research programs centered around nursery education. With grants from the Laura Spellman Rockefeller Fund, a number of them have conducted extensive research now available in published form.

Before the opening of the W.P.A. schools in 1933, there were three main types of nursery schools: the philanthropic, the college research, and the private. The private were largely of the coöperative parent type or of a commercial kind. In 1936 there were 53 philanthropic, 77 research, and 144 private schools in the country. The philanthropic and the research schools developed the main body of theory and practice which was more or less followed by the private schools. Thus, when the W.P.A. schools were opened, operating officials turned for guidance to universities and to philanthropic schools. One could make the somewhat oversimplified statement that the theory came from the research centers, and the practice from philanthropic schools. The W.P.A. schools were, for the most part, set up in neighborhood surroundings more comparable to the philanthropic settings, and they served a clientele whose ways and needs were more comparable. The building and equipment of

many W.P.A. schools were also more like those of a settlement school than of a college school. In addition to the handicaps due to the lack of building and equipment, the W.P.A. had to rely for staffing on unemployed people and the intricate coördination of the nursery school service with many other W.P.A. projects. The research schools were often dismayed to see how their theories appeared as W.P.A. practice. Although a few W.P.A. schools had received full academic approval when they were liquidated in 1943, the educational intelligentsia was not in agreement as to their accomplishments, for a true marriage of theory and practice never took place in these schools.

While the university schools have felt satisfied with their theories and practices, philanthropic schools were not able to carry them out under the circumstances they had to meet, and developed a body of practices which better fitted the philanthropic situation. But these practices have never been much publicized because publication is not in the line of these schools, nor have they had money for such a purpose. If research schools have sometimes looked down their noses at the philanthropic schools, it cannot be just because the former have better buildings and equipment as well as better theories, for at least one research school is housed in quarters in which a private individual could not even get a license to operate. Rather, it would seem that the failure of the two groups to get together is fundamental, and that the divergence between a theoretical academic approach and a practical down-to-earth approach manifests itself in nursery education as in other fields.

That such a divergence really exists was clearly evidenced in the next important step in American nursery education — the establishment of the Lanham schools. After many months of discussion and disagreement among government departments and officials, the Federal Works Agency was finally chosen to administer the program of care for children of mothers working in war industries. This resulted in the establishment of a tremendous nursery school program sponsored by the public schools. In some cases the W.P.A. schools were converted into Lanham schools, for the first Lanham money was given several months before the W.P.A. schools were discontinued. Where there had never been W.P.A. schools, and where facilities were needed, as in Vallejo, for example, temporary quarters were made in school buildings and housing projects.

Eventually, the Federal Works Agency and the Federal Public Housing Authority constructed nine nursery school buildings in Vallejo. Altogether several hundred were erected all over the country, and they were equipped with the things needed to make a good nursery school program. The F.W.A. paid out of the Lanham funds to the local school districts the expense of operating the child-care centers, including nursery schools, while no authority was given the Agency to supervise the educational operation of the schools.

Where new buildings and equipment were available for Lanham schools, certain standards regarding facilities were automatically possible; and where well-equipped W.P.A. schools were taken over, educational standards survived; but in other cases the schools were substandard and offered custodial rather than educational services. Local school districts were under no obligation to consider the nursery schools as other than custodial, and many of them proceeded to let it go at that. Others became interested in making the program educational and sought technical help from the college schools. Help was given, but it could not be tendered on a basis of experience, for the academic people had no experience of the kind that would have been applicable to the needs of the war situation, and there was literally no time to study and adapt the theories they could have supplied. The children came pouring into the schools. The most pressing problem was where to find teachers. Even the few remaining W.P.A. teachers had taken other war jobs in the meantime. For example, in staffing the eleven Vallejo nursery schools for 450 children, it was not possible to hire more than two trained teachers; 95 per cent of the staff had never seen a nursery school from the inside. Vallejo, however, had a trained and experienced director; for the most part even the directors of the Lanham schools were not technicians. This was naturally appalling to the academic technicians, who felt rebuffed when they were ignored. However, the schools were built, they overflowed with children, and the government insisted on keeping them going. A few technicians who were in the thick of it, and a few academicians who were willing to learn what it was all about, worked to find out what could be done to make the schools as good as possible. And the Lanham schools gradually developed status — at first not with the nursery school people and not with school departments, but with

a new group of children and parents, who were not poor and downtrodden or out of a job, and who were not guinea-pig oriented either. These parents used the nursery school, not because they were forced to do so or as a matter of educational belief, but because the nursery school was part of the functional situation in which they found themselves. For the first time everyday American working people put their children in nursery schools as a routine part of education. At the beginning of the program, the presence of children in such schools was looked upon largely as a war tragedy; at the end of the program their attendance was viewed as an enviable privilege that should be more widely extended. The whole venture had the war vitality, but beyond that the new buildings, and equipment, and the novelty to parents, children, and teachers brought fresh light to bear on many problems, and it became necessary to look at the whole question of nursery education from the angle of the immediate expansion of public services and under the viewpoint of permanency. Previously, only the privileged — the university-oriented child — or the under-privileged — the day nursery or slum child — had been in nursery school. The Lanham schools proved that nursery schools are good for all children, and that the research schools and the philanthropic schools are not sufficient in either kind or number, so that nursery education must now embark on a new phase of expansion. And that phase must unite theory and practice, social welfare and education, public and private enterprise, and must create an integrated program for the future. New York State and California are well into the beginnings of that new phase — but all is far from well. Divided opinion has increased rather than decreased, due to the fact that the Lanham schools are being continued on a temporary basis without being made an integral part of the regular school system.

At the close of the war so many children were in the child-care center nursery schools, that it was necessary for states and cities to appropriate funds for the continued support of the schools. Hopefully, considering the need for the schools to be merely a postwar affair, appropriations on a year-to-year basis have been made. This temporizing has caused the whole program to sag under a feeling of insecurity and uncertainty. Today we have four instead of three major types of schools — the philanthropic, the public, the college research, and the private schools. Since a certain amount of teacher-

training is going on in all four types, each with theory and practice unto itself, the situation is becoming more and more confused.

The Crisis in Nursery School Education

Two major questions must be answered immediately. First, is public nursery education to be continued and extended on a large scale? And second, if so, what should its nature be? The Golden Gate Kindergarten Association attempted to answer both questions in an open letter to the Governor of the State of California, which is quoted in the Appendix, page 480. There can be no doubt that the most hopeful possibility for nursery school expansion lies in the development of the child-care centers, and the letter was written with that idea in mind. There is need in many states for permissive legislation before school districts can develop nursery schools for educational purposes. Perhaps this can most easily be provided by a comprehensive legislation which meets both social and educational needs of young children.

The first question which arises is: Cannot these children using the child-care center nursery schools be otherwise taken care of? Funds from private sources are in no way adequate, nor are city or county funds available in sufficient amounts. Whereas, in the past, day care of children was looked upon as the exclusive job of private philanthropy, there is no evidence to show that the private program was ever of adequate size for sound social policy. And today, with the increased population, the high birth rate, the housing shortage, the divorce rate, and the need of business, industry, and professions for the technical services of women, the number of children needing day care is greater than ever before. Many orphanages have been closed in this country during recent decades, the number of private boarding homes for children has not increased in relation to the population increase in urban areas, and the demand for boarding homes exceeds the supply. Children who formerly were in boarding homes and orphanages were brought back to their own homes when the child-care centers were opened because mothers could then work and keep their children at home at night. We assume that most persons will agree that it is better for the child, the parent, and society as a whole to have children live at home even if only for the night, rather than have them away from home

the whole twenty-four hours for months at a time. Mothers who have their children at home with them nights are less likely to seek activity which is not home-centered in an effort to offset loneliness resulting from the removal of children from homes.

Establishment of state orphanages is hardly to be recommended, nor is the paying of subsidies to orphanages or boarding homes for the care of children whose mothers must work. And since some mothers must work, centers maintained by the schools are probably the best agencies to protect family life and children's health and development.

The Child Care Center

Who should attend the centers? Both practically and ideologically this question must be specifically answered because the funds and facilities are not unlimited. Quite the contrary, it is very hard to get appropriations from state legislatures. Surely children who would be placed in orphanages or boarding homes if there were no child-care centers should be the first to be eligible. The fact that most of the children in orphanages have both parents living is a sad commentary on our provisions for children from broken homes. The following groups could well be eligible to child-care centers: children whose mothers are their sole support; children whose mothers are dead, have deserted, or who are in mental hospitals, or otherwise require hospitalization for periods over six weeks; and for any other categories of children that any legislature wants to include in the program. The most needy cases fall within these limits, and such eligibility requirements would be not only easy to administer, but would require no elaborate investigation of individual cases.

No restrictions of admission based on a mother's income would have to be stipulated because the number of women who are the sole support of their children and who are making high salaries is negligible, and in these cases the children are usually sent to boarding homes or orphanages if day-care services are not available. If the purpose of the center is to promote home life, the widowed mother's home should be sustained, whether she is living at a starvation level or at a good standard of living. Furthermore, the woman who makes much money usually prefers a housekeeper to child care. The same argument applies to the hospitalized wealthy

mother. Rarely when the mother is incapacitated by long illness would the well-to-do father prefer nursery school to a housekeeper. While certain inappropriate cases will be eligible if no income restrictions are laid down where mothers are sole support, this is not an important consideration for they would be few and far between.

"Sole support of the child by the mother" should be interpreted to include the divorced, separated, or widowed working mother, and no restrictions should be made regarding her eligibility. While grandparents and ex-husbands often do help working mothers financially, the support is usually irregular, can never accurately and reliably be ascertained, and is rarely enough to sustain a housekeeper in the mother's absence. Therefore, the orphanage or a boarding home becomes the child's fate unless there is a child-care program. If a child's admission to nursery school makes it possible for him to live with his remaining parent, when he has already lost one, then the program, far from destroying home life, is actually helping to maintain it.

Records show that more than half of the children now in existing publicly supported child-care center nursery schools have two parents, both working to maintain a higher standard of living than would be possible from the father's income only. In the milieu of our present-day society, mothers who work outside the home are socially approved *provided their children are properly cared for in their absence*, whether their work is for pay or for pleasure. However, opinion differs widely as to what is proper care.

So far as the family's mental health is concerned, the question of the mother's working is a complicated one. It seems evident that some women cannot stay home even if "they should." Unless society guarantees every father an adequate income that he automatically brings home and spends on his family, countless mothers must work to see that their children are literally housed, fed, and clothed. They may neglect their children in so doing, but in ways that legislators have heretofore overlooked, such as leaving them alone at home, with unsuitable relatives or neighbors for free care, or in the hired care of children from age ten up, or in unlicensed private commercial day-care homes. The child-care center nursery school can protect these children whose mothers must work by giving them a security which will prevent mental ill health of the

whole family. Therefore, children whose parents are both working to maintain a minimum standard of living should not be excluded, for substandard homes are in themselves a menace to mental health. In the case of widowed mothers, any subsidy to substandard homes in the form of direct cash relief is not a healthy one.

The mothers who do not have to work but wish to do so to increase family income beyond a safe and healthy minimum are the ones over whom controversy exists. If there are no restrictions on family incomes, or if relatively high ones are allowed under admission regulations, would not this encourage women to desert the home for the office? The answer is both yes and no, depending upon individual cases which are very hard to estimate numerically. Psychologically this question is much too complicated to discuss at length here. However, while legislators may not agree, most psychiatrists would agree in endorsing individual cases where mother, father, and child would all benefit from having the mother work and the child attend a good child-care center nursery school. The fear that the existence of centers will lure mothers away from home is something of a "boogie-man" affair because any woman who takes the double task of working at a job all day and working for her home and family at night does so only out of some necessity which may not be evident on the surface.

It is possible to set restrictions on admissions to child-care center nursery schools which will not be fixed by law on a hard and fast income basis. This can be done by having a "case review" committee of school officials authorized to make decisions on an individual basis. Such a committee would not need to have social worker investigation service, but guided in its decisions by the principle of giving priority to all such cases as discussed above, could have power to admit children referred by the Juvenile Court, family welfare agencies, and visiting teachers. This would mean that 99 per cent of the children in the centers would be "socially deserving," and at the same time it would make it possible for child-care center nursery schools to be more useful as agencies which promote community mental health.

If income were not to be a basis for rigid restriction, then should any child be eligible for nursery school care? The answer is obviously no, for the present, because facilities are limited, and the program is as yet thought of only as a service to homes that are threat-

ened with certain destructive influences that can be reduced by family use of the centers. But conceivably, in a future where home and school are working more closely together for common aims of integrated child care, education, and development, any child who would benefit by attendance at a center would not be excluded because his family was not poor enough. If child care and education were one integral system, more democratic admission rules could be made. Good nursery schools can be good instruments for mental health – perhaps the most valuable, next to good homes. While the placing of a child in nursery school for eight or nine hours is not an educational optimum, it is infinitely better than leaving a child in an orphanage or boarding home, or with an unsuitable attendant elsewhere. Nursery schools are a necessary outcome of urban civilization where family units lack housing and recreation facilities for caring for the young child. The lack of brothers, sisters, cousins, and relatives in the home of the modern city child also makes it desirable for him to have the social contacts which nursery schools provide at an early age.

However, to set up nursery schools only for children from homes needing child-care services is psychologically hazardous and educationally defective. Such hazards and defects can be removed only by developing a public nursery school program and making nursery school child care an extended day-care service of the nursery school. School-age child-care children are not, and should not, be segregated into classrooms; neither should nursery school-age children be so segregated. The present practice of doing this in child-care centers raises serious problems. Until the aim of child-care centers is broadly conceived as that of providing first-rate educational services to public school children, this problem cannot be solved, and unless child-care nursery schools can be a part of a regular public school nursery education program, existing schools will continue to have an educationally defective character. This was not true of the Lanham schools. The Lanham schools had children from normal healthy homes where mothers were voluntarily working as a temporary emergency measure. The state schools now have only children from broken homes or homes under economic pressure which forces mothers to work. This means that these schools have groups of children all of whom are deprived of normal mother's care at home. Such a selection is unhealthy psycho-

logically, and creates the "day nursery" atmosphere that constitutes the chief objection to these schools by many educators. This difficulty can be solved only by a reorganization of the centers as an extension of the regular education service to the nursery school age level.

In order to make child-care nursery education a part of the regular elementary school services, state legislatures will have to enact laws which will permit school districts to provide extended day-care services and to establish nursery schools for children under school age. Such legislation should be broadly permissive, and allow the use of local funds for these purposes where school boards can make them available. However, the state would have to carry the main burden of the expense of child-care services, for parents will not be able to pay high fees. For instance, the state could pay to the school district per diem amounts per child in attendance on a sliding scale based on the size of the program. This per diem amount would have to be sufficient to pay the entire costs for operating units on a minimum basis. The use of local funds should not be excluded if they are available to extend services or to raise standards.

The question of public child care should now be faced as a permanent national problem. Laws are needed which will establish a sound policy and bring immediate relief to certain children and their mothers. Passage of legislation allowing school districts to establish nursery schools entirely by the use of local funds is also needed, for there is a great need to provide some educational service to children under kindergarten age. Such permissive legislation would allow school districts to enroll children in classes in child-care nursery schools where their presence is psychologically desirable and economically needed. Fees could be set at any amounts up to full costs. These schools could then be used as laboratories for high school students and for parents to study child behavior. Great benefit could come to the community from the development of such an educational program.

The combination of two- and three-year-old "child care" children with the regular classroom children cannot be worked out unless our public schools develop nursery schools. Enrollment in the child-care nursery school should not be restricted to those children who are receiving all-day care. The four- and five-year-old

children enrolled for regular kindergarten and the children of working mothers should be in the same classrooms. The regular children would come at nine o'clock, go home at noon; the other children would remain for the rest of the day. Such a combination is just as feasible for four- and five-year-olds as it is for eight- and ten-year-olds. The feasibility of such a combination program of several sessions in the nursery school classroom is being demonstrated at the three schools now operated by the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association. Children come from 9:30 to 11:30, from 9:00 to 1:00, from 9:00 to 4:00, or from 7:00 to 6:00. Such flexibility of sessions means that each child stays only as long as is good or necessary for him. A school with this feature is a great boon to the child from a broken home, for he mingles with children from good homes instead of only with children from those which are also upset. He has quieter early-morning and late-afternoon hours in school because of the low attendance at these times. As said before, considerable psychological hazard exists when so many children who come from broken homes are grouped together for a long day. The proposed reorganization of child-care services would enable the kindergarten and nursery schools to make a felicitous union, something which is impossible under the present setup. An analysis of the costs is given in the chapter on Finances.

The Potentialities of the Nursery School

Assuming that a system of public nursery education could be widely established, what would be the implications of such a development? If we try to look ahead to the day after tomorrow, we can see that a well-integrated, universal and free, public nursery school system would make at least ten important contributions to the field of education alone. If proper foundation for such a system is laid now, such contributions can be in part realized at once. But in addition to those that would be immediate, there are others which reach far into the future. There is no branch of education which has so many implications for other branches as nursery education. Here, we shall state in simple terms what those contributions are and what problems they present to future nursery educators.

First, and this first should be foremost always, the nursery school of the future can provide children with invaluable educational ex-

periences. By setting up schools where the children's interests come first and where all other matters are secondary, we can guarantee children a school life that is wholly beneficial. Possibly every child needs nursery school. There is no home so perfect that the child would not benefit by being away from home in a good nursery school for at least ten hours a week. Even when the home is ideal, the child needs to adjust to a larger, different world, and this step should not usually be postponed much beyond the age of two or it will become unnecessarily difficult. Where the home is partly good and partly bad, the child needs to learn that the bad and good of the world are not all of the home variety. Again, the earlier he learns this, the better. Finally, where the home is negligent, defective, or brutal, it is of the greatest importance to have the child learn as early as possible that a larger and more benign world exists. In short, we can assert that the number of children who would not benefit from a good nursery school is no greater than those who do not thrive on a diet containing milk. Because nursery schools are new in the history of mankind, the educational consequences of group life for the very young are as yet inestimable. Society is seeing the family adjust to deep-seated changes resulting from the influences of urban development and the growth of technology. The nursery school is a new institution which, in many instances, can serve the children's needs better than the family.

A good nursery school, aye, there's the rub. What is a good nursery school? In terms of what the future nursery school ought to offer the children, it may be said that there is no comparison to be made with today's schools, for one or more of the following charges can be leveled at almost any school today: narrow conception of the educational program, substandard housing and equipment, untrained personnel, inadequate financial support, or confused and inappropriate methodology. In fact, it can be said that there does not exist in the world a nursery school building suitable for wide duplication; that the equipment of even the best schools leaves much to be desired; that the materials used are insufficient in variety and quality; that rarely are all the children properly grouped as to age and developmental levels; that staff members are untrained or inadequately trained; that the program of session hours and daily routines is not flexible; that discipline is appallingly devoid

of modern psychological insights; that absence of leadership makes organization a haphazard affair; that activities are restricted through lack of facilities and educational insights; that children are pushed through compulsive routines which were conceived without regard to the findings of modern psychology; that nutrition suffers from inadequate budgets; that teachers learn techniques mostly by much individual floundering; that children are used as guinea pigs for the sake of records; that schools try to play up to parents who regret the child's growing up; that no public authority is fully responsible for minimum standards; and that the high cost of nursery education affects both the children in the schools and out of them. Not to see all these shortcomings is to be smug about the achievements of the past and to look upon nursery education as a well-established institution rather than as an embryo.

Second, nursery schools can influence teacher training in a profound way. All teacher training deals with techniques for teaching subject matter and with understanding of human relationships. Since the nursery school is one of the best available laboratories for observing human nature, it is desirable that all teachers spend more time in actually seeing children, and less in reading about them in books. The problems presented by the proposal to use nursery schools as laboratories for teachers are manifold: To what extent should children be exposed to numerous personalities and to unsuitable personalities of trainees? Who is to act as interpreter of behavior? What interpretations are important for teachers of every school age level? For the teacher-training program, the nursery school of the future needs one-way-screen observation places, and will integrate such observation with the rest of the teacher training.

Third, the nursery school can help to bring about certain basic reforms in elementary education. It has already gone far in that direction, for the kindergarten has been steadily moving from its traditional rigid program to the more flexible one of the nursery schools for the four- and five-year-olds. The contrast in the approaches is painfully evident, though theoretical differences are minimized in all professional discussions. For example, while children in nursery school are fast asleep from one to three in the afternoon, children in kindergartens — even the youngest ones — are trying to learn techniques, skills, and social adjustments after a morning of hard play and a questionable lunch. This program discrep-

ancy will ultimately be decided in favor of the nursery school since it is already agreed by all competent educators and has proved in practice to be the better of the two. Whereas kindergartens are sometimes considered as mere introduction centers for the first grade, nursery schools are considered of unquestioned value in themselves and are not expected to make any concessions in the direction of a preparatory school. There is no effort made to get the child ready to go from the twos to the threes, or from the threes to the fours. The gradations of what is looked upon as appropriate are not hard and fast. A child cannot be held back from associating with his age level because he is not able to paint or build with blocks or climb according to a standard. But a child is not promoted from first grade until he knows how to read a certain number of words. From this single feature of our educational system, more psychological damage originates than from any other. This becomes especially evident when one remembers that most children enter first grade at an age too young to learn to read without great struggle and waste of time. The nursery school should eventually convince the regular school that reading should start only in the second grade, and that the needs of children up to seven are best served by the nursery school type curriculum. The problems connected with this potential contribution of nursery schools are relatively simple: desks and books should be thrown out of all first grade classrooms and nursery school equipment and materials brought in, and an early childhood division should be set up to precede the elementary division of the regular public schools.

Once a nursery school is part of every public school, its type of discipline is bound to affect all elementary education, for it will be seen that what works in nursery school will work elsewhere. This effect may be slow to manifest itself but it will eventually produce a revolution in disciplinary practice.

The training of all teachers, especially elementary teachers, by having them study nursery school children as a part of their preparation for teaching, could have far-reaching effects not only on discipline but also on the teaching of the arts and the understanding of the intellectual processes of children throughout the grades. Evidence of individual growth will be valued rather than group achievements on certain dates and subject matters. The whole idea of giving the child information when he is ready for it, rather than

by a prearranged schedule, will carry over from the nursery school to the elementary school.

Fourth, the nursery school can contribute to parent education, largely by showing prospective parents what they may expect from their offspring, and by letting them see what normal developmental behavior is. As stated in the chapter on Parents, the nursery school must revise many of its present parent education concepts, or more correctly speaking, the concepts which outsiders have tried to force upon it. The problems connected with this contribution are very complex and will be difficult to work out. One of them is the need to prove that the coöperative mothers' nursery school is an undesirable makeshift at best, and an actual detriment to children at its worst. Under a good system of free public nursery education, mothers would probably show no more desire to attend nursery school than they do to attend the first grade, and those who insisted on coming would be considered clinging mothers. Nor would the school welcome the idea of having a new set of amateur teachers every morning, each of them highly involved emotionally with one or more of the children. Only the lack of regular nursery schools and teachers can account for the endorsement of coöperative nursery schools by persons who really understand nursery education. Parent participation in nursery schools should have the same restrictions as those that are placed on student teacher participation. In both cases, the individuals should at least be suited to such work, for subjecting children to the personalities of twenty or more individualities as teachers is certainly an unwarranted hardship on them, no matter what benefit may come to the parents from such arrangement. The parent most in need of education will be the least fitted to participate. Her education must come via observation, supervised reading, and conferences with adults.

Fifth, the nursery school can contribute to the pediatric training of nurses and doctors. A month of in-service training for the pediatrician and the student nurse would have an inestimable effect on the hospital care of children and upon the practice of pediatrics. The Golden Gate Nursery Schools now give such training to student nurses from the University of California, Stanford University, and St. Francis hospitals. Knowing how to handle well children is the best equipment for knowing how to handle sick ones. Student nurses report that in nursery school they learn how

to nurse adults, too, for their behavior during illness often becomes regressive and childlike. Any nursery school would benefit from having young men medical students work in the classrooms, for children love to have men around and are probably deprived of an important educational factor because there are none in nursery school. However, since desirable types of men seldom go in for nursery school teaching, it is impossible to provide a regular male attendant. One month of service in nursery school, accompanied by intensive reading in child psychology would go far toward improving the psychological understanding of beginning pediatricians, and such service would help to bring about the more intimate relationship between school and doctor that is so badly needed. If medical schools could be converted to this idea, nursery schools would be pleased.

Sixth, in a short time, the nursery school can give psychiatrists and psychiatric social workers an education that would require years of book study. In-service training for one month or more on the same basis as for pediatricians would go far toward making the case-study method come from life rather than from books. The complaint teachers often make about psychiatrists and psychoanalysts is that they know mental diseases rather than normality, just as pediatricians know children's diseases better than their normal behavior. Psychoanalysts have a method of dealing with neuroses, but as for methods for dealing with children in the nursery school to prevent the development of neuroses, they sometimes speak hesitatingly because they are not sufficiently familiar with nursery schools. If nursery schools were made available to psychiatrists in training, great mutual benefit would result. Again, the problem is one of convincing medical schools and psychoanalytic training institutes to send their candidates to nursery school, and of having nursery schools set up to utilize their services.

Seventh, the nursery school can contribute to research within certain limits, as defined in the chapter on records. To date, the contribution of research in nursery schools has more breadth than depth. The problems attendant upon this function of the nursery school are numerous and involve a completely different approach.

Eighth, the nursery school can influence social service education by giving to the children whose homes cannot, the extended day-care services they need. Such school care would eliminate the need

for day nurseries, reduce orphanage occupancy, and decrease the need for boarding homes and financial aid to dependent children. The problems involved are only those of setting up a public nursery school program as outlined above. Day nurseries, orphanages, boarding homes, and the institutions and individuals who are sources of financial aid to mothers can make no protest against the establishment of a public school program that will relieve part of their burden. Social workers are already aware of the value of a public child-care program, and they would be influenced by its theories and practices as they see it serve members of their clientele.

Nursery schools can influence social work in the field of criminology by showing that the roots of delinquency often go back to early childhood, and by showing that a benign form of discipline is needed for all young children whether in orphanages, boarding homes or detention homes. An observation period in nursery school could well be made part of the training for all children's institutional personnel.

Ninth, nursery schools can influence higher education, particularly in the field of psychology, for the need to identify the living child with the textbook child is very great. Much psychology can and should be learned from observing how children in nursery school learn, how they are motivated, and by learning from living children rather than from books how personalities are formed. If there were more nursery schools available, they would no doubt be much more widely used by psychologists.

Tenth, nursery schools can influence a community by education which is grounded not so much in formal study as in living experiences. To live in a community where all preschool children are educated at public expense by persons well selected for that work would be an education for every member of the community, for a society that provided for all children between the ages of two and six would not neglect either the older or the younger ones. In an urban society, compulsory nursery school education at two years is a goal which we should consider seriously. We have discovered that two-year-olds are just as sociable as the older children if the adult child ratio gives them a chance to outgrow the mother attachment; in fact, in one of our schools we are now taking children as young as twenty months. The difficulties which stand in the way of realization of such hopes are great, and they stem from various

sources. They are due in part to the lack of understanding of the public as to what nursery schools are, and in part to the inability of the schools to see their full function in the American social scene of tomorrow. The public is moving faster than the professionals, for nursery education is more widely favored than ever before. "The nursery school is now the new child in the family of public education," says the Educational Policies Commission of the National Educators Association, which is to say that nursery schools have "arrived." There rests upon the few available technicians a tremendous responsibility for now seeing to it that the nursery school makes good educationally as well as numerically. The immediate future is of critical importance, for there is great danger that the public program will be established on inadequate levels. Nursery school technicians must set their house in order. They are confronted with the enormous responsibility of translating ideas and ideals into worthy classroom concretions. The country is ready for nursery schools; the question is: Are the nursery schools ready to do the job?

Selected Reading

Andrus, Ruth, and associates, *Curriculum Guides for Teachers of Children from Two to Six Years of Age.* New York, Reynal and Hitchcock, 1936.

An analysis of the nursery school curriculum and the varied learnings expected of the preschool child. Historically interesting, but the content is no longer up to date in some respects.

Baruch, Dorothy W., *Parents and Children Go to School.* Chicago, Scott, Foresman, 1939.

As the title indicates, mother and child are an educational unit according to the concept developed in this book. It shows good understanding of children and parents in the joint educational experience described. The book is also enlightening, however, to the beginning teacher in schools where parent education is not emphasized.

Calverton, V. F., and Samuel D. Schmalhausen (eds.), *The New Generation: The Intimate Problems of Modern Parents and Children.* New York, The Macaulay Company, 1930.

A collection of provocative essays on the family by psychologists, writers, and philosophers.

Cubberley, Ellwood P., *A Brief History of Education.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920.

Cubberley is the great American educational historian and author of educational texts. Unless the reader has majored in education in college, she is likely to be unaware of what an interesting story he has written. This book is a condensation of an earlier and larger work.

Curti, Merle E., *Social Ideas of American Education.* New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935.

Education as we know it today did not just happen. It is the result of many long battles for ideas and ideals, all of which is very interestingly told in this volume.

Davis, Mary Dabney, *Schools for Children Under Six,* U.S. Government Bulletin No. 5. Washington, D.C., United States Government Printing Office, 1947.

Here are the facts and figures on educational facilities for children under six in the United States. Unfortunately, the figures are not of recent date.

Dewey, John, *The School and Society.* Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1899.

This is the little book which founded progressive education, and should be read by nursery school teachers, because nursery education is progressive education in the best sense of the term.

Forest, Ilse, *Pre-School Education.* New York, The Macmillan Company, 1927.

This is an historical account which deals with the ideologies and thinking out of which the modern nursery school idea developed. Scholarly, but interesting.

Freud, Anna, and Dorothy Burlingham, *Infants Without Families: The Case For and Against Residential Nurseries.* New York, International University Press, 1944.

In this little book is an account of the effect of the war on children in England.

Johnson, Harriet M., *Children in the Nursery School.* New York, John Day Company, 1928.

This book pleads for an environment scaled to the children's size and for an adaptable training of children that views their physical development as a continuous process. While Harriet Johnson broke down some of the old concepts centered around

a rigid idea of character training that failed to consider the influence of growth factors, she was not aware of the complicated hidden motivations for behavior. She was willing to admit that physical fluctuations affect the conditioning processes with children, but her psychological approach was fundamentally behavioristic.

Johnson, Harriet (edited by Barbara Biber), *School Begins at Two.* New York, The New Republic, 1936.

Compiled after her death from miscellaneous manuscripts. All nursery school teachers should read this little volume.

Lewis, Robert T., *Romulus, or the Future of the Child.* New York, E. P. Dutton, 1929.

A charming essay on the place of nursery education in the scheme of future education. Written to please teachers but not most parents.

National Advisory Committee on Emergency Nursery Schools, in coöperation with the United States Office of Education, Bulletin No. 1. Washington, D.C., United States Government Printing Office, 1933.

An official account of W.P.A. schools. Not very interesting but gives some important facts.

Pre-School and Parental Education, National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-Eighth Yearbook. Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1929.

The accounts of parent education and of research in child development, as well as the one of nursery education up to 1928 will hold the interest of the reader as an historical statement. Pages 228 to 235 on Evaluation deserve every teacher's careful reading. The question of habit-forming education was challenged during the nineteen-twenties largely by the Walden School alone.

Rugg, Harold, and Ann Shumaker, *The Child-Centered School.* Yonkers, New York, World Book Company, 1928.

This book gives an inspiring account of the aims and methods of progressive education. It is far easier to read than Dewey and gives a good idea of what education could be some day.

Sargent, Porter, *The Future of Education.* Boston, Porter Sargent, 1944.

Sargent has a unique relation to American education; a sharp

pen, a sense of humor, and some excellent ideas that make very interesting reading.

Washburne, Carleton, *A Living Philosophy of Education.* New York, John Day Company, 1940.

Washburne studied with Frederick Burk, whose excellent ideas on education are not readily available in print. The Winnetka system is progressive, and has a good spokesman in this author. Nursery education is so allied with progressive education that nursery school teachers should know what it is all about.

United States Office of Education, *Nursery Schools*, Bulletin. Washington, D.C., United States Government Printing Office, 1932.

Shows types and kinds of schools throughout the country. It puts great emphasis on records and research.

Papers on Nursery Education, Society for the Promotion of Nursery Schools, San Francisco, California, 1949.

Three-Fifty Union Street, The Nursery School of Tomorrow.

A twenty-five minute film in color made under the direction of Rhoda Kellogg, available through the Society for the Promotion of Nursery Schools, 2714 Steiner Street, San Francisco, California.

Appendixes

I

Bibliography: A Basic List

A GLANCE at the card catalogue of any large public library will reveal that there are more books on "Nursery Rhymes" than on "Nursery Education." A student of the latter subject can read in one month all the published books dealing with nursery schools as such, whereas the literature for children of nursery school age is extensive. A nursery school teacher who wishes to become professionally oriented must be familiar with all the books regarding nursery schools, as well as with many that deal with the psychology of the nursery years, with some that deal with psychology in general, some which deal with education in general, and some which deal with the changing world as reflected in such institutions as the family, the school, and the state.

Our beginning teachers are asked to read a basic list, and thereafter as their interest dictates. Keeping notes on reading is helpful because one can go back and look up something one might wish to study in more detail. If approached with a professional attitude, any book that is listed here will prove to be reasonably interesting. To read a book is, of course, not the same as to study it. A quick reading may be all that is needed to get what value is in some books. A rereading for study is sometimes better than a page-by-page study on first reading; but there are books that cannot be understood except by careful reading, word by word.

The books listed in this bibliography have varied points of view — even conflicting ones. They do not all have the same answer for the same questions. The reader must pick and choose her own answers. If she tries to believe everything she reads, she can become

completely confused, but instead of confusion a strong person will eventually develop ideas and methods which are valid as her own. Diversification of reading protects against a dogmatic or doctrinaire attitude that is not in accordance with experience.

The teacher is confronted by the problem of learning more about the child's unconsciously motivated behavior. In this respect it should be pointed out that a great deal of diluted Freudian psychology is now appearing in popular articles on the care and training of children and that much of it is not authentic. The basic ideas of Freud's teachings should be known to teachers. When they read enough psychoanalytic literature to realize how complicated and scientific Freudian psychology is, they are less likely to think and talk in terms of the Freudian jargon rather than in terms of its dynamic significance.

It must be pointed out that Freudian psychology is founded on therapeutic work with neuroses. Neither Freud nor any of his followers have ever developed a body of teachings on education at home or in school that are based on studies of large numbers of normal children. Yet, the implications for education which come from psychoanalysis are profound and far-reaching. Teachers who hope to influence the behavior of children should understand what psychoanalysis has to offer to education, just as psychoanalysts should visit schools to see how children behave in the group situation of the nursery school. Freud has so profoundly influenced modern child psychology that no educator can today afford to be ignorant of his work and its significance for education. Other psychoanalysts, including Adler, Rank, and Jung, have not affected child psychology so directly, although the influence of Jung will no doubt come to be felt more distinctly because his ideas, so different from Freud's, concerning the nature of the relationships between men and women, have important implications for our thinking about family life.

Attitudes toward child psychology today fall into two main schools: the psychoanalytic or the dynamic approach, and the non-psychoanalytic or more or less the behavioristic approach. The former is gaining over the latter and is emphasized in this bibliography. It is generally considered difficult to get adults to understand the nature of the child's unconscious behavior without some work with a psychoanalyst on their own psychological problems.

However, since every teacher cannot be analyzed, we shall have to rely on books to do what they can. Reading on any subject, even psychoanalysis, can be enlightening when the reader keeps an open mind.

Let us turn to the minimum basic list which is a balanced diet of nursery education and child psychology. Books are not listed in recommended order of reading.

Basic Reading List

Nursery School Procedure, Josephine C. Foster and Marion L. Matson
The Challenge of Parenthood, Rudolph Dreikurs
The Challenge of Marriage, Rudolph Dreikurs
Troubles of Children and Parents, Susan Isaacs
Education of the Young Child, Catherine Landreth
Practice in Pre-School Education, Ruth Updegraff and others
Nursery Education: Theory and Practice, W. E. Blatz, Dorothy Millichamp and Margaret Fletcher
Children's Centers, Rose H. Alschuler
In Defense of Children, Bert I. Beverly, M.D.
The Parents' Manual, Anna W. M. Wolf
Social Development of Young Children, Susan Isaacs
The Nursery Years, Susan Isaacs
The Infant and Child in the Culture of Today, Arnold Gesell, M.D.
Substance of Mental Health, George K. Preston
The Inner World of Childhood, Frances G. Wickes
A Nursery School Experiment, Harriet M. Johnson
Children in the Nursery School, Harriet M. Johnson
School Begins at Two, Harriet M. Johnson
We, the Parents, Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg
Parents and Children Go to School, Dorothy W. Baruch
Essentials of Nursery Education, Rose Alschuler
Step by Step in Nursery School, Jennie Haxton and Edith Wilcox
Pocket Book of Baby and Child Care, Benjamin Spock, M.D.
Intellectual Growth in Young Children, Susan Isaacs
Psychoanalytic Study of the Family, J. C. Flügel

Our Children: A Handbook for Parents, Dorothy C. Fisher and Sidonie M. Gruenberg
Psychiatric Interviews with Children, Helen L. Witmer
Language in Action, Samuel Hayakawa
Does Your Child Obey? Regina Westcott Wieman
Fundamental Needs of the Child, Lawrence K. Frank
Educational Services for Young Children, Educational Policies Commission
The Problem of the Nervous Child, Elida Evans
Play Therapy, Virginia Mae Axline

Language in Action, Samuel Hayakawa. New York, Harcourt Brace, 1942.

Nursery education is a subject full of semantic snares. One who reads this little book will be spared hours of futile arguments with opponents by coming to see how important is the choice of words we use.

A Bibliography of Nursery Education, N.A.N.E. Iowa City, Iowa, Distribution Center, 1947.

This assemblage of more than 700 titles refers largely to short articles in periodicals and to research studies with brief comments on each.

The Child, the Family, the Community: A Classified Booklist. New York, Child Study Association of America, 1947.

An excellent selective bibliography on the subjects included in the title. It lists many books that have the dynamic approach.

A Bibliography of Nursery Education, N.A.N.E., Boston, 1935.

This bibliography of 840 titles refers largely to periodical literature, much of which is only of historical interest today.

Bibliography of Nursery Education from 1935–1939, N.A.N.E., Boston, 1939.

A continuation of 416 listings similar to those in previous bibliography. Comprehensive. Look up and read the excellent articles written by Helen T. Wooley, an early American nursery school teacher whose ill health prevented her from making more contributions.

II

Inventory and Order Forms

THE FOLLOWING FORMS for inventory of equipment and materials are also used as order forms. Every three months the head teacher checks the list and records after each item the amount or number on hand, and the amount or number needed. An order made up from this record is sent in to the supervisor. To save paper and writing, the same *Inventory and Order Forms* are used throughout the year. These records are not for bookkeeping; therefore, they do not have to be kept letter perfect. They serve as a worksheet which tells the teacher at a glance all the things that are needed, how much, and what kind of each. They permit central buying to be more discriminating and economical, since they also reveal if there is too much or too little use of any material — facts which should receive attention from the supervisor. The equipment and materials listed here comprise a desirable minimum for use in our schools.

INVENTORY AND ORDER FORM FOR EQUIPMENT

INDOOR	CONDITION			NEW ONE NEEDED
	GOOD	FAIR	BROKEN	
TABLES				
3 feet by 6 feet by 15 inches high				
3 feet by 6 feet by 16 inches high				
3 feet by 6 feet by 18 inches high				
3 feet by 6 feet by 20 inches high				
Reading table				
CHAIRS				
7 inches children's				
8 inches children's				
9 inches children's				
10 inches children's				
16 inches adults'				
LOCKERS				
Coat				
Blanket				
Bed				
CUPBOARDS				
Materials				
Blocks				
Finger paint rack				
EASELS				
PIANO				
COT DOLLY				
FOOD CART				
SCREENS				
COTS				
BENCHES				

INDOOR	CONDITION			NEW ONE NEEDED
	GOOD	FAIR	BROKEN	
SAND BOX				
SCALES				
DESK				
OUTDOOR				
CLIMBING APPARATUS				
SLIDE				
High				
Low				
SAND BOX				
SWINGS				
TRAPEZE				
ROCKING BOAT				
SEE SAW				
MONKEY BAR				
SAW HORSES				
CHICKEN COOP				
PACKING BOXES				
Long				
Medium				
Small				
BOARDS				
Long				
Short				
Jump plank				

OUTDOOR	CONDITION			NEW ONE NEEDED
	GOOD	FAIR	BROKEN	
CLIMBING BOX				
INCLINE				
HOLLOW BLOCKS				
6 inches by 12 inches by 12 inches				
6 inches by 12 inches by 24 inches				
TRICYCLES				
Large				
Small				
WAGONS				
SCOOTERS				
KIDDIE CARS				
WHEELBARROWS				
HOLLOW BARRELS				
LOW BENCHES				

INVENTORY AND ORDER FORM FOR MATERIALS

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
PAINTS (packages)								
Easel								
Blue								
Green								
Yellow								
Red								
Violet								
Brown								
Black								
White								
Orange								
Cerise								
Other								
FINGER PAINT COLORING (gallons)								
Yellow								
Blue								
Green								
Red								
Black								
Purple								
Brown								
BRUSHES (pieces)								
Size ¾ inch								
Size ½ inch								
Size ⅜ inch								
APRONS (pieces)								
Children's easel								
Children's finger painting								
CRAYONS (dozens)								
— ⅜ inch oil								
+ ⅜ inch oil								
⅜ inch chalk								
⅞ inch chalk								
Crayon container								
CLAY (pounds)								
Dry powder								
Mixed powder								
Container								
Commercially prepared clay								
Container								
BLOCKS (pieces)								
Hollow floor blocks								
Unit floor blocks								
half unit								
unit								

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
Unit floor blocks (continued)								
double unit								
quadruple								
small triangle								
large triangle								
pillar								
small cylinder								
large cylinder								
circular curve								
eliptical curve								
Table blocks								
color cubes								
plain cubes								
shaped blocks								
fitted blocks								
Table block container								
TOYS (pieces)								
Small wooden dolls								
Interlocking trains								
Autos, boats, etc.								
Stuffed animals								
Pull toys								
Nested blocks								
Balls								
Large								
Small								
Bean bags								
Plastic cubes								
Plastic clothespins								
Painted tin cans								
Colored geometrical wood chips								
Pounding boards								
DOLLS								
Rubber dolls								
Stuffed dolls								
Other dolls								
Doll clothes container								
DOLL FURNITURE (pieces)								
Beds								
Chairs								
Tables								
Rockers								
Blankets								
Chests								
Dressers								
Stoves								
Sinks								
Settees								
Brooms								
Dust pans								

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
Doll furniture (continued)								
Irons								
Ironing board								
Dishes								
Food packages								
Clock								
Radio								
Doll carriage								
Mirror								
DRESS–UP CLOTHES (pieces)								
Hats								
Shoes								
Skirts								
Purses								
Dresses								
Blouses								
Shawls								
Dress-up clothes container								
BEADS (pieces)								
Large								
Strings								
Bead container								
PUZZLES (pieces)								
Simple								
Complicated								
Puzzle containers								
PEG BOARDS (pieces)								
Small								
Large								
Pegs (plain)								
Pegs (ornamented)								
Peg containers								
POKER CHIPS (pieces)								
Chips								
Holder								
SCISSORS (pieces)								
4-inch								
6-inch								
Teacher's								
Manicure								
PAPER (sheets)								
Newsprint								
Finger painting								
Drawing 8½ inches by 11 inches								
Construction 8½ inches by 11 inches								

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
PASTE (quarts)								
Library								
PENCILS (pieces)								
Children's								
Teacher's								
PICTURES (pieces)								
Permanent								
Mats								
For display (mounted)								
For stories								
BOOKS (pieces)								
Children's scrapbooks								
Children's printed books								
Children's music books								
Books for teachers								
Books for student teachers								
Books for parents								
Old magazines								
Cookbook								
Guide book								
Cut-out picture box								
MUSIC MATERIALS (pieces)								
List:								
1. Phonograph needles								
2. Clappers								
3. Bells								
4.								
5.								
Container for musical toys								
SANDBOX TOYS (pieces)								
Shovels								
Cans								
Forms								
PLANTS (pieces)								
Permanent								
Temporary								
BLANKETS (pieces)								
Summer								
Winter								
SHEETS (pieces)								
Cot size								
PILLOWS (pieces)								

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
PILLOW CASES (pieces)								
RUBBER SHEETS (pieces)								
BIBS (pieces)								
CHILDREN'S CLOTHING (pieces)								
Pants (large)								
Pants (small)								
Shirts								
Coveralls								
Socks								
OFFICE SUPPLIES (pieces)								
Desk								
Chairs								
Blotter pad								
Blotter								
Stationery								
Envelopes								
Manila (9½ inches by 4 inches)								
White (9½ inches by 4 inches)								
Manila (small)								
White (small)								
Mailing (10 inches by 12 inches)								
Stamps								
Calendar								
Roll book								
Receipt book								
Scratch paper								
Thumb tacks								
Ink								
Pens								
Paper clips								
Scotch tape								
Paper fasteners								
Clips								
Manila folders								
Locker markers								
Record forms								
Application for Admission								
Application for Reduced Fee								
Registration Card								
Medical Record								
Attendance Record								
Receipt Form								
Payment Record								
Monthly Enrollment by Fees								
Monthly Illness Report								
Teacher's Monthly Time Record								

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
Record forms (continued)								
Teacher's Rating Chart								
Inventory Forms								
Employee's Physical Examination								
Teacher's Education Record								
Clothing Record								
Note from Doctor								
MEDICAL SUPPLIES (pieces)								
Cotton								
Small prepared bandages								
Methiolate								
Calamine								
Tincture of green soap								
Iodine								
Swab sticks								
Bandages								
Petrolatum								
Alcohol								
Peroxide								
Tongue blades								
Rectal thermometers								
Manicure scissors								
Burn ointment								
Flea powder								
TOWELS (pieces)								
Children's								
Kitchen								
Paper								
CLOTHS FOR CLEANING (pieces)								
For easels								
For toilets								
For floors								
For eating tables								
For windows								
For beds								
Paint rags								
Dusting cloths								
Dish cloths								
CLEANING TOOLS (pieces)								
Kitchen broom								
Outside broom								
Push broom								
Whisk broom								
Kitchen mop								
Toilet mop								
Floor mop								
Mop buckets								
Cleaning pails								

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
CLEANING TOOLS (pieces) (Cont.)								
Enamel pails								
Dry mops								
Dish brushes								
Vegetable brushes								
Dustpans								
Steel wool								
Clothesline								
Clothespins								
Clothesrack								
Garbage pail								
Garbage cans								
Wastebaskets								
Plastic sponges								
PAPER SUPPLIES (packages)								
Toilet paper								
Nose wipes								
Napkins								
Paper cups								
Paper sacks								
APRONS								
Cooks'								
Housekeepers'								
Teachers'								
SEWING SUPPLIES (pieces)								
Needles								
Thread								
Thimbles								
Tape								
Buttons								
DISHES (pieces)								
Service plates								
Service bowls								
Dessert dishes								
Cereal dishes								
Milk glasses								
Wheat germ jars								
Coffee cups								
Juice glasses								
SILVERWARE (pieces)								
Salad forks								
Teaspoons								
Dessert spoons								
Tablespoons								
KITCHEN MATERIALS (not listed elsewhere)								
Equipment (pieces)								
Stove								
Refrigerator								

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
Equipment (pieces) (continued)								
Cupboards								
Table								
Chairs								
Stools								
Towel racks								
Utensils (pieces)								
Frying pans								
Roasters								
Pressure cooker								
Large pots								
Small pots								
Dutch oven								
Pot covers								
Double boilers								
Cake pans								
Coffee pots, large								
Coffee pots, small								
Colander								
Strainers								
Sink strainer								
Dish pans								
Meat grinder								
Bread box								
Egg beater								
Chopping bowl								
Chopping knife								
Orange juicer								
Shredder								
Serving trays								
Potato masher								
Can opener (wall)								
Cutlery boxes								
Cooking spoons								
Knives (carving)								
Knives (vegetable)								
Fork (cooking)								
Strainer spoon								
Measuring spoon								
Ladles								
Pot holders								
Spatula								
Salad bowls								
Mixing bowls								
Electric iron								
GENERAL UTILITY (pieces)								
Cup holder								
Oil cloth								
Garden hose								
Mirrors								
Marking stamp								
Flashlight								

MATERIAL	NUMBER ON HAND				NUMBER NEEDED			
	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.
GENERAL UTILITY (pieces) (cont.)								
Batteries								
Pinning boards								
Bulletin board								
Blackboards								
Telephone								
Fire extinguishers								
Flower vases								
Locker markers								
Hammer								
Pliers								
Screwdriver								
Nails								
Fuses								
Safety pins								
Light bulbs								
Clocks								
Kitchen								
Office								
Playroom								
MISCELLANEOUS								
Electric Iron								

COMMENTS

III

Rating Charts

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS — STUDENT TEACHER RATING CHART

Name of Student _____ Teaching at _____

This report made by _____ Position _____

	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Remarks
Effect of Presence on Children					
Capacity for Development					
Effect on other Teachers					
Emotional Stability					
Emotional Maturity					
Ability to Accept Responsibility					
Willingness to Accept Direction					
Common Sense					
Sense of Humor					
Appearance					
Liking of Children					
Patience with Children					
Amount of Talking					
Voice and Speech					
General Facial Expression					
Skills with Eating					
Skills with Sleeping					
Skills with Toileting					
Skills with Yard Duty					
Skills with Special Activities					
Skills with Behavior Problems					
Reliability when not Supervised					
Knowledge of School Procedures					

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS — TEACHER RATING CHART

Name of Teacher _____ Age _____ Date Employed _____ Teaching at _____

This report made by _____ Position _____

Supervisor _____

	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Remarks
Effect of Presence on Children					
Effect on other Teachers					
Capacity for Development					
Veracity					
Appropriate loyalties					
Emotional Stability					
Emotional Maturity					
Ability to Retain Confidences					
Ability to Take Responsibility					
Willingness to Work Overtime					
Willingness to Change Hours					
Willingness to Take Direction					
Mental Ability					
Common Sense					
Intuitive Insight					
Sense of Humor					
Health					
Appearance					
Amount of Reading and Studying					
Attendance Record					
Liking of Children					
Patience with Children					
Comprehension of Nursery Education					
Understanding of Age Levels					
Enjoyment of Work					
Amount of Talking					
Voice					
Speech					
General Facial Expression					
Skills with Eating					
Skills with Sleeping					
Skills with Toileting					
Skills with Yard Duty					
Skills with Special Activities					
Skills with Behavior Problems					
Attitude Toward Being Corrected					
Reliability when not Supervised					
Ability to Talk to Parents					
Knowledge of School Procedures					

For Head Teachers and Assistant Head Teachers

	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Remarks
Attitude toward Board of Directors					
Attitude toward Supervisor					
Attitude toward Teachers					
Ability to Take Full Responsibility					
Ability to Delegate Authority					
Ability to Develop Teaching Material					
Ability to Keep Records					
Ability to Meet the Public					
Ability to Direct Various Personalities					

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS — HOUSEKEEPER RATING CHART

Name of Housekeeper _____ Age _____ Date Employed _____ School _____

This report made by _____ Length of time known to reporter _____

Supervisor's Comments _____

	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Remarks
Attendance					
Interest in Work					
Intelligence					
Emotional Stability					
Honesty					
Agreeability in the Situation					
Appearance					
Health					
Loyalty					
Willingness to Accept Direction					
Relationship to Supervisor					
Relationship to Head Teacher					
Relationship to Cook					
Relationship to Teachers					
Relationship to Children					
Willingness to Work Overtime					
Willingness to Change Hours					
Willingness to Accept All Duties					
Willingness to Accept Proper Share of Work					
Cleanliness					
Orderliness					

GOLDEN GATE NURSERY SCHOOLS' RATING CHART
FOR STUDENT NURSES

Name of Nurse Mary Jones Teaching at Stanford

This report made by Mary Smith Score 215 Grade B

Conferences attended (1) (2) 3 (4) (5) Book Reports (1) (2) (3)

Days of att. 22

	Excel	Good	Fair	Poor	Remarks
Effect of presence on children	30	(20)	10	0	
Capacity for Development	20	(10)	5	0	
Effect on Other Teachers	10	(5)	0	-5	
Emotional Stability	30	(20)	10	-10	
Emotional Maturity	20	(10)	5	0	
Ability to take Responsibility	10	(5)	0	-5	
Ability to take Direction	10	(5)	0	0	
Common Sense	10	(5)	5	0	
Sense of Humor	10	5	(0)	0	
Appearance	10	5	(0)	-5	
Not Distracted or Bored	10	(5)	5	0	
Apparent Liking of Children	(20)	10	5	0	
Patience with Children	30	(20)	10	5	
Amount of Talking	20	10	(5)	0	
Voice and Speech	20	(10)	5	0	
General Facial Expression	20	(10)	5	0	
Skills with Eating	20	(10)	5	0	
Skills with Sleeping	20	10	(5)	0	
Skills with Toileting	20	(10)	5	0	
Skills with Yard Duty	20	10	(5)	0	
Skills with Special Activities	20	10	(5)	0	
Skills with Behavior Problems	30	20	(10)	5	
Reliability When Not Supervised	20	(10)	10	5	
Knowledge of School Procedures	20	(10)	5	0	

IV

Sample Test Questions

Organization

Discuss four reasons why a nursery school should be thoroughly organized.

What qualifications should the head of a nursery school have?

What are the characteristics of the well organized nursery school?

How can the approaches of the "concrete-minded" teacher and the one with the "intuitive" viewpoint be reconciled to give stability to adult behavior?

Children

How can all children benefit from attendance in a good nursery school?

What environmental influences and family relationships create problems for children?

What are some of the inner conflicts that all children encounter?

How are these conflicts reflected in the emotional disturbances in children?

What are some possible causes of thumb-sucking?

What problems arise in toilet training?

What problems arise from the child's first concepts of sex?

Program

Describe a good daily program by hours, beginning at 7 A.M. and ending at 6 P.M.

Why should the scheduled program be followed on time?

Under what circumstances should the program be changed?

Activities

What are the principal indoor activities in the nursery school?
How often should children change from one activity to another?
What is the value of block play?
How should crayons be used?
Why do we give children clay to play with?
How should clay be used?
What benefits do children get from easel painting?
What procedures are best to follow in finger painting?
What should be the teacher's attitude during doll play and why?
What pieces of equipment are most needed for outdoor activities?
What are the characteristics of a good teacher in the playground situation?
How should the sandbox, jungle gym, swings, and slide be used?

Nutrition

What type of menu is best for nursery school?
Why is it best to follow a lunch routine exactly?
How much of each food should be served, and how?
What eating arrangements are best at table?
What table manners should be taught the children?
Discuss the most important aspects of the lunch period.

Discipline

In what ways do problems of discipline arise?
Give five ways in which the nursery school can maintain good discipline.
What is the aim of discipline in the nursery school?
Describe words and gestures that children may interpret as "hateful" or "loving."
What is a "good teacher"?
Discuss positive and negative discipline.
Must nursery school and home discipline be the same?

Health

What are the requirements of a good nursery school health program?

What rules of sanitation should be followed in a nursery school?
What health examinations should be required of staff members?
What are the pre-admission health requirements that we should require of children?
What are the arguments against using individual combs, toothbrushes, washcloths, soap, and against assigning beds?
Describe a satisfactory inspection procedure.
When should children be isolated, where, and for how long?
How often should the doctor examine the children?
What is done in event of minor accidents, and who administers first aid?

Records

What records should be kept on file for each child and why?
Discuss other records which should be kept.
Why is a minimum of record keeping desirable?
Why are certain records difficult to keep and often misleading?

Routines

What should be done to insure a good sleep period?
Describe a good procedure for getting the children from the lunch tables to their beds.
Which teacher should supervise the sleeping room, and why is it never left alone?
What is the best procedure for getting children up after their nap?
What kind of clothes is best for nursery school children?
How much help should be given children in dressing?
Describe the pre-lunch toileting procedure.

V

Sample Menus and Recipes

THE FOLLOWING MENUS might be considered somewhat too limited in variety, but they were made after years of experimenting with menus offering a greater variety. We have come to the conclusion that it is wiser for the nursery school to give well-liked foods often rather than to struggle to develop the children's appetites for a great number of different foods. A list of all foods served was made by teachers and cooks to show what the children seemed to like. A general negative consensus on certain menu items caused them to be eliminated. There are enough suitable foods that children like to enable us to serve them exclusively and thereby to remove one obstacle to a good lunch period. Introduction of further variety in the menus can be left to the home and to other school experiences later on. These menus can be used in almost any part of the country, but certain foods which are locally popular with the children should be substituted where suitable and possible. Milk is served with every lunch, milk and crackers in the afternoon. Coffee is served to teachers at breakfast, lunch, and in the mid-afternoon.

The recipes in our cookbook are presented for a given day's menu rather than by subject matter. This means that the cook can follow all recipes without having to turn pages. A shelf ledge which holds the open cookbook at reading height is a convenience. Some of the recipes here given are taken from a mimeographed WPA cookbook, modified for use in the Vallejo Child Care Centers and again modified for use in the Golden Gate Nursery Schools. A mere statement of the menu does not reveal true nutritional values unless accompanied by recipes which give exact ingredient proportions.

MENUS FOR FIRST WEEK

	PROTEIN	STARCH	COOKED VEGETABLE	RAW FOOD	SPREAD	DESSERT
Mon.	Egg salad	Baked potatoes	String beans	Celery sticks	Peanut butter, honey	Chocolate pudding
Tues.	Meat loaf	Steamed rice	Steamed carrots	Lettuce salad	Marga-rine	Gelatin
Wed.	Creamed liver	Mashed potatoes	Canned peas	Celery sticks	Jam	Canned fruit
Thurs.	Cottage cheese	Roast potatoes	Squash	Vegetable salad	Peanut butter, honey	Ginger-bread
Fri.	Tuna or salmon loaf, tomato sauce	Steamed rice	Market vegetable	Carrot sticks	Marga-rine	Fruit

MENUS FOR SECOND WEEK

	PROTEIN	STARCH	COOKED VEGETABLE	RAW FOOD	SPREAD	DESSERT
Mon.	Creamed eggs	Roast potatoes	Beets	Lettuce salad	Peanut butter, honey	Cake
Tues.	Beef stew	Potatoes	Peas, carrots, onions	Celery sticks	Marga-rine	Fruit cup
Wed.	Tongue in gravy	Noodles	Market vegetable	Cabbage salad	Jam	Banana pudding
Thurs.	Baked hash	Potatoes	Steamed squash	Carrot, raisin salad	Marga-rine	Peaches
Fri.	Baked halibut	Creamed potatoes	String beans	Beet and green pepper salad	Peanut butter, honey	Canned plums

MENUS FOR THIRD WEEK

	PROTEIN	STARCH	COOKED VEGETABLE	RAW FOOD	SPREAD	DESSERT
Mon.	Scrambled eggs with bacon	Scalloped potatoes	String beans	Lettuce salad	Peanut butter, honey	Vanilla pudding
Tues.	Meat loaf, gravy	Steamed rice	Harvard beets	Carrot sticks	Marga-rine	Stewed fruit
Wed.	Cottage cheese	Baked potatoes	Market vegetable	Mixed salad	Jam	Chocolate pudding
Thurs.	Liver loaf	Steamed rice	Steamed carrots	Celery sticks	Marga-rine	Fruit cup
Fri.	Cheese	Macaroni	Peas	Vegetable salad	Peanut butter, honey	Gelatin

MENUS FOR FOURTH WEEK

	PROTEIN	STARCH	COOKED VEGETABLE	RAW FOOD	SPREAD	DESSERT
Mon.	Hard-boiled eggs	Buttered noodles	Steamed carrots	Celery, apple, raisin salad	Peanut butter, honey	Maple pudding
Tues.	Heart in casserole	Steamed rice	Market vegetable	Carrot sticks	Marga-rine	Apple-sauce
Wed.	Lamb stew	Potatoes, carrots, onions	Peas	Lettuce salad	Jam	Cake
Thurs.	Ground beef	Spanish rice	Market vegetable	Apple sticks	Marga-rine	Canned fruit
Fri.	Baked salmon	Mashed potatoes	Peas	Mixed salad	Peanut butter, honey	Canned apricots

The standard portion for a serving to a child is one tablespoon. Thus 25 servings are 25 tablespoonfuls. For 25 persons, more than 25 standard portions must be cooked because teachers eat more and children have second and third helpings. An adult should be counted as two persons for the servings given here. A school with 35 enrolled children and seven adults would thus cook for 50 servings as a minimum, plus enough to serve whatever seconds are likely to be needed, from which must be subtracted the servings not needed because of absence. For popular items, more quantity for seconds should be prepared than for items that are not so well liked. The cook soon learns to judge what the children like best, and about how much of any food they are likely to eat. In reading the recipes, it must be remembered that the serving is only the small amount of the standard portion — one rounded tablespoonful. Thus the cooking will always be for more servings than the number of persons present at a given time. The recipes are here given in amounts for 25, 40, 50, and 60 servings. For 65 servings combine the amounts given under 25 and under 40, for other amounts make appropriate combinations.

MONDAY

MENU: Egg salad, Baked potatoes, String beans, Celery sticks, Chocolate pudding

EGG SALAD Hard boil one egg per person. Chop eggs and use celery and onion to season. Moisten liberally with eggless mayonnaise.

EGGLESS MAYONNAISE

2 teaspoons sugar
1 teaspoon salt
½ teaspoon mustard
½ teaspoon paprika
¾ cup evaporated milk
2 cups salad oil
¼ cup vinegar

Mix the sugar, salt, mustard, paprika, and a quarter of the milk. Beat well with a rotary egg beater. Add 1 teaspoon oil at a time. Beat after each addition. Continue beating until half of oil has been added.

Add vinegar a little at a time and continue beating. When all the vinegar has been added, slowly add remaining oil, beating constantly. Add remainder of the milk and beat slowly until thick. Pour into jars. Store in a cool place.

BAKED POTATOES

Wash potatoes thoroughly by scrubbing with a rough scouring pad. Cook 15 minutes to let them dry. Remove from oven and rub with oil. Stick once or twice with fork when half done to prevent bursting. Cook at 350° F. until done; cut into sections.

STRING BEANS

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings			
		25	40	50	60
Canned beans	No. 2 cans	3	5	6	7

Remove from can and heat in open pot. Add 1 teaspoon sugar per No. 2 can, and add 1 uncooked slice of bacon for flavoring.

CELERY STICKS Wash celery and cut to finger size.

CHOCOLATE PUDDING

		25	40	50	60
Sugar	cups	1	1¾	2	3
Cornstarch	tablespoons	5	8	10	12
Salt	teaspoons	1	1¾	2	3
Chocolate	cups	¾	1	1¼	1½
Milk	cups	6	9	12	14
Eggs		2	3	4	6
Vanilla	teaspoons	1¼	2	2½	3

Combine sugar, cornstarch, salt, and chocolate. Add a small amount of cold milk to flour mixture and make a smooth paste. Heat remaining milk. Do not let it scorch. Add chocolate paste to heated milk. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Separate eggs. Beat yolks and add small amount of thickened pudding. Pour egg mixture into remainder of pudding and cook 5 minutes. Remove from fire and cool. Add vanilla. Beat egg whites until stiff and fold into pudding mixture.

TUESDAY

MENU: Meat loaf, Steamed rice, Steamed carrots, Lettuce salad, Gelatin

MEAT LOAF

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Ground round and beef heart	pounds	2½	4	5	6
Onion, chopped	cups	½	¾	1	1½
Celery, diced (optional)	cups	1	1½	2	2¼
Salt	teaspoons	2½	4	5	6
Bread crumbs or cornflakes	cups	1½	2½	3	3¾
Milk	cups	1¼	2	2½	3
Eggs, slightly beaten		2	3	4	5

Mix the ground meat, chopped onion, diced celery; add the salt, bread crumbs, and milk to slightly beaten eggs. Add the meat mixture to the egg mixture. Mix thoroughly. Place in a greased baking pan and bake in a moderate oven (350° F.) for 1 hour. Slice just before serving. Make gravy by adding milk in same amount as juice from meat. Thicken with flour.

RICE

	25	40	50	60
cups	2	3	4	5

Wash rice. Boil hard for 20 minutes in plenty of water. Wash with cold water. Steam 20 minutes in steamer.

STEAMED CARROTS

		25	40	50	60
Carrots	large bunches	2½	4	5	6

Scrape old carrots; brush young ones with scouring pad. Shred and cook 10 minutes. Add salt. No butter.

LETTUCE SALAD

		25	40	50	60
Lettuce	small heads	3	4	6	7

Soak lettuce early in the morning or day before in cold water. Put in clean dish towel and set in refrigerator. Shred and serve with dressing made with small amount of sugar and vinegar.

GELATIN Use prepared gelatin dessert if available. If not available, use fruit nectar and gelatin prepared as follows:

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Fruit juice	quarts	1	1¾	2	3
Gelatin	ounces	8	14	16	18
Sugar	cups	1½	2	3	4
Water	quarts	1	1¼	2	3

Dissolve gelatin in half the cold water. Heat the juice and remaining water and pour into the gelatin. Chill until firm.

WEDNESDAY

MENU: Creamed liver, Mashed potatoes, Canned peas, Celery sticks, Canned fruit

CREAMED LIVER

		25	40	50	60
Liver	pounds	3	5	6	7

Wash liver. Salt and dredge with flour, and brown in a skillet. Remove and cut in small pieces and add to cream sauce and heat in oven until served.

CREAM SAUCE

		25	40	50	60
Milk	cups	2	3	4	5
Butter or other fat	tablespoons	2	3	4	5
Flour	tablespoons	2	3	4	5
Salt	teaspoons	1	1½	2	2¼

Melt the butter. Add the flour, stirring constantly. Heat the milk and add to flour mixture a little at a time, stirring constantly. Cook until thick. Add the salt.

MASHED POTATOES

		25	40	50	60
Potatoes	pounds	3	5	6	7

Cook potatoes until well done. Mash and season with fresh or canned milk and butter. Salt to taste.

Flake fish with fork, removing all bones. Mix all the ingredients with the exception of the celery, green pepper, onions, butter and tomatoes, and shape into loaves in a greased baking pan. Bake in a moderate oven 350° F. for 45 minutes. When done, pour sauce over it made as follows: Cook celery, pepper, and onion in butter until tender; then add to tomatoes and pour over loaf.

STEAMED RICE

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Rice	cups	1½	2½	3	4

Wash rice. Boil hard for 20 minutes. Wash with cold water. Steam 20 minutes in steamer.

CABBAGE

		25	40	50	60
Cabbage	pounds	3	4	6	7

Shred cabbage and cook 10 minutes in small amount of water. Season with salt. Cook just before serving and do not let it stand long and thus discolor.

CARROT STICKS

Scrape carrots if old, brush with scouring pad if very young ones. Cut to finger size.

CANNED FRUIT

		25	40	50	60
Fruit	No. 2½ cans	3	5	6	7

MONDAY

MENU: Creamed eggs, Roast potatoes, Beets, Lettuce salad, Cake

CREAMED EGGS Hard boil enough eggs for one for each person. Slice in half and pour medium cream sauce over them.

CREAM SAUCE

		25	40	50	60
Milk, heated	cups	3	4½	6	7
Butter or other fat	tablespoons	3	4½	6	7
Flour	tablespoons	3	4½	6	7
Salt	teaspoons	½	¾	1	1½

Melt the butter. Add flour to melted butter, stirring constantly. Add the heated milk a little at a time. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Do not boil. Add the salt.

ROAST POTATOES Wash potatoes thoroughly by scouring with rough scouring pad. Cut to serving size (1″ × 2″ × 2″) and place in dripping pan having 1/16″ layer of fat. Cook at 350° F. until done. Turn pieces while cooking so that all sides brown in the fat.

BEETS

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings			
		25	40	50	60
Canned beets	No. 2 cans	3	5	6	7

Use canned beets, cut into very small pieces, and season with sugar and butter.

LETTUCE SALAD		25	40	50	60
Lettuce	small heads	3	5	6	7

Soak lettuce early in the morning or day before in cold water. Put in clean dish towel and set in refrigerator. Shred and serve with sugar and vinegar dressing.

CAKE

		25	40	50	60
Milk	cups	1	1¾	2	2½
Baking powder	tablespoons	1½	2⅓	3	3½
Salt	teaspoons	¼	¼	½	¾
Flour, sifted	cups	2	2¾	4	6
Butter or other fat	cups	½	¾	1	1⅓
Sugar	cups	1	1¾	2	2½
Eggs, beaten		2	3	4	5
Vanilla	teaspoons	1	2	2	3

Add baking powder and salt to the sifted flour, and sift together. Cream butter, add sugar to the creamed butter and cream until fluffy. Add beaten egg to the creamed mixture and beat well. Add sifted flour mixture and milk alternately to the creamed mixture. The first and last additions should be the flour mixture. Add vanilla and beat well. Pour into greased baking pans. Bake in a moderate oven (350° F.) for 30 to 35 minutes. Cool. Cut into squares and serve.

TUESDAY

MENU: Beef stew with carrots, potatoes, and onions, Peas, Celery sticks, Fruit cup

BEEF STEW

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Beef stew meat	pounds	3	5	6	7½
Onions	cups	1¼	2	2½	3
Carrots	pounds	1½	2¼	3	3½
Potatoes	pounds	1½	2¼	3	3½
Salt	teaspoons	1½	2¼	3	3½

Brown beef in small amount of fat. Add onions to browned beef and cover with water. Let cook for 3 hours or until tender. Cut potatoes and carrots in small pieces and add to meat. Cook for about ½ hour, or until done.

PEAS

		25	40	50	60
Canned peas	No. 2 cans	3	5	6	7

CELERY STICKS

Wash celery and cut to finger size.

FRUIT CUP

		25	40	50	60
Mixed fruit	No. 2½ cans	3	5	6	7

Canned fruit only. If desired, a combination of half fresh and half canned fruit, cut up into small pieces, may be used instead.

WEDNESDAY

MENU: Tongue in gravy, Noodles, Market vegetable, Cabbage salad, Banana pudding

TONGUE IN GRAVY

		25	40	50	60
Tongue	pounds	4	5	8	9

Boil tongue in salted water. Cook from 3 to 4 hours or until tender. Skin and cut in small pieces. Make gravy using half broth and half milk. Add meat to gravy and serve. Don't use tough end.

NOODLES

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Noodles	pounds	1½	2	3	4

Cook in boiling salted water until tender. Drain in colander.

CABBAGE SALAD

		25	40	50	60
Cabbage	pounds	1½	2¼	3	4

Mix shredded cabbage with lemon and canned milk dressing made as follows:

1 cup canned milk
2 tablespoons sugar
½ teaspoon salt
⅓ cup lemon juice

BANANA PUDDING

		25	40	50	60
Sugar	cups	1	1½	2	2½
Cornstarch	cups	½	¾	1	1¼
Salt	teaspoons	½	¾	1	1¼
Milk	quarts	1½	2¾	3	3⅔
Eggs	number	2	3	4	5
Vanilla	teaspoons	1	1½	2	3
Bananas	pounds	2	3¼	4	5
Graham crackers	number	12	20	25	30

Combine sugar, cornstarch, and salt. Add small amount of cold milk to flour mixture to make a smooth paste. Heat remaining milk. Do not let it scorch. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Separate eggs. Beat yolks and add small amount of hot milk. Pour egg mixture into thickened pudding and cook 5 minutes. Add vanilla. Remove from fire and cool. Grease bottom of pan and cover with layer of cracker crumbs. Add a layer of sliced bananas and pour half of custard over bananas. Then add another layer of crumbs and sliced bananas and pour remaining custard over this. Beat egg whites until firm; add sugar and spread over top of custard. Put into medium oven and let meringue brown — about 3 minutes. Cool and serve.

THURSDAY

MENU: Baked hash with potatoes, Steamed squash, Carrot and raisin salad, Peaches

BAKED HASH

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings			
		25	40	50	60
Ground meat	pounds	2½	4	5	6
Potatoes	pounds	1½	3	4	5
Onions, chopped	pounds	¼	¾	1	1¼
Salt	teaspoons	1	1½	2	2¼

Brown meat and onions. Cube potatoes which have previously been cooked in their jackets. Add to meat; put in baking dish and cook in oven until tender. Season with salt. If too dry, add small amount of water.

STEAMED SQUASH

		25	40	50	60
Squash (yellow)	pounds	3	4	6	7

Cut squash and cook in small amount of water. Season with salt and butter. Cook just before serving.

CARROT AND RAISIN SALAD

		25	40	50	60
Carrots	pounds	2	3½	4	5
Raisins	boxes	½	¾	1	1½

Wash and shred carrots. Mix with raisins and moisten with mock mayonnaise dressing, made as follows:

1 egg
1 teaspoon sugar
½ teaspoon dry mustard
½ teaspoon salt
¾ cup vinegar
¾ cup salad oil
¼ cup flour
1 cup water
¼ teaspoon paprika

Put the eggs, sugar, mustard, salt, vinegar, and salad oil in bowl. Add the water slowly to flour, mixing well. Cook 5 minutes to make

smooth paste. Slowly add hot paste to egg mixture. Beat until mixture thickens. Add paprika.

PEACHES

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Canned peaches	No. 2½ cans	3	5	6	7

Cut in small pieces.

FRIDAY

MENU: Baked halibut or cod, Creamed potatoes, String beans, Beet and green pepper salad, Canned plums

BAKED HALIBUT

		25	40	50	60
Halibut	pounds	2½	4½	5½	7

Scrape fish, removing all scales. Wash thoroughly. Put into greased baking pan. Add grated onion, salt, butter, and lemon juice over top and bake slowly in moderate oven for 45 minutes to 1 hour.

CREAMED POTATOES

		25	40	50	60
Potatoes	pounds	3	5	6	7

Cook potatoes the day ahead in jackets, or the same day after peeling and cutting into pieces. If cooked the day before, cube and heat in cream sauce; if cooked same day pour cream sauce over them and serve.

CREAM SAUCE

		25	40	50	60
Milk, heated	cups	3	4	6	7
Butter, or other fat	tablespoons	3	4	6	7
Flour	cups	⅔	1	1½	2
Salt	teaspoons	1	1½	2	2½

Melt butter. Add flour to melted butter, stirring constantly. Add heated milk, a little at a time. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Add salt, and pour over potatoes.

STRING BEANS

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
String beans	No. 2 cans	3	5	6	7

Heat from can. Add 1 teaspoon sugar per No. 2 can, and 1 piece raw bacon to flavor.

BEET AND GREEN PEPPER SALAD

		25	40	50	60
Beets, cooked	cans	1½	2	3	4
Peppers	pounds	¼	¾	½	1

Cut beets and peppers into small pieces; add sugar, oil, and salt to taste. Keep moist with beet juice.

CANNED PLUMS

		25	40	50	60
Plums	No. 2½ cans	3	5	6	7

Remove pits and cut up into small pieces.

MONDAY

MENU: Scrambled eggs with bacon, Scalloped potatoes, String beans, Lettuce salad, Vanilla pudding

SCRAMBLED EGGS

		25	40	50	60
Eggs		25	40	50	60
Milk	cups	1½	2⅔	3	4
Salt	teaspoons	1½	2⅔	3	3¾
Bacon	pounds	½	¾	1	1½

Beat eggs well, adding milk and salt while beating. Fry bacon and put 2 tablespoons of fat in the top of a double boiler. Add egg mixture to the melted fat. Add bacon cut fine. Cook in covered double boiler or over hot water 30 to 40 minutes, or cook in an open iron pot. Serve at once.

SCALLOPED POTATOES

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Potatoes	pounds	3	5	6	7
Onion, chopped	cups	⅔	1	1⅓	2
Salt	teaspoons	1	1½	2	2½
Cooking time (hours)		1	1¼	1½	1¾

Wash, peel, and slice potatoes thin; add salt and chopped onion. Place alternate layers of sliced potato mixture and cream sauce into a buttered baking pan. Bake in a moderate oven (350° F.).

CREAM SAUCE

		25	40	50	60
Milk	cups	3	4	6	7
Butter or other fat	tablespoons	2	3	4	5
Flour	cups	¾	1	1½	2
Salt	teaspoons	1	1½	2	2½

Heat milk, melt butter. Add flour to melted butter, stirring constantly. Add the heated milk, a little at a time. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Do not boil. Add salt.

STRING BEANS

		25	40	50	60
String beans	No. 2 cans	3	5	6	7

Heat from can. Add 1 teaspoon sugar per No. 2 can, and 1 piece of raw bacon to flavor.

LETTUCE SALAD

		25	40	50	60
Lettuce	Small heads	3	5	6	7

Soak lettuce early in the morning or the day before in cold water. Put in clean dish towel and set in refrigerator. Shred and serve with sugar and vinegar dressing.

VANILLA PUDDING

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings			
		25	40	50	60
Sugar	cups	1	1½	2	2½
Cornstarch	cups	⅔	1	1⅓	2
Salt	teaspoons	½	¾	1	1¼
Milk	quarts	1½	2¼	3	3½
Eggs	number	2	3	4	5
Vanilla	teaspoons	1	1½	2	2½

Combine sugar, cornstarch, and salt. Add small amount of cold milk to flour mixture and make a smooth paste. Heat remaining milk. Do not let it scorch. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Separate eggs. Beat yolks and add small amount of hot milk. Pour egg mixture into thickened pudding and cook 5 minutes. Remove from fire and cool. Add vanilla. Beat egg whites until stiff. Fold into pudding mixture. Cover with graham cracker crumbs.

TUESDAY

MENU: Meat loaf, Steamed rice, Harvard beets, Carrot sticks, Stewed fruit

MEAT LOAF

		25	40	50	60
Ground round and beef heart	pounds	2½	4	5	6
Onion, chopped	cups	½	¾	1	1½
Celery, diced (optional)	cups	1	1½	2	2¼
Salt	teaspoons	2½	4	5	6
Bread crumbs or cornflakes	cups	1½	2½	3	3¾
Milk	cups	1¼	2	2½	3
Eggs, slightly beaten	number	2	3	4	5

Mix the ground meat, chopped onion, and diced celery. Add salt, bread crumbs, and milk to slightly beaten eggs. Add meat mixture to egg mixture and mix thoroughly. Place in a greased baking pan and bake in moderate oven (350° F.) for 1 hour. Slice just before serving. Make gravy by adding milk in same amount as juice from meat. Thicken with flour and pour over loaf.

STEAMED RICE

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Rice	cups	2	3	4	5

Wash rice. Boil hard for 20 minutes. Wash with cold water. Steam 20 minutes in steamer.

HARVARD BEETS

		25	40	50	60
Sugar	cups	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1
Flour	tablespoons	3	$4\frac{3}{4}$	6	7
Water, boiling	cups	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$
Lemon juice or vinegar	cups	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
Salt	teaspoons	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$
Butter or other fat	cups	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
Beets, cooked, diced	cans	$2\frac{1}{2}$	4	5	6

Mix the sugar and flour. Slowly add the boiling water, stirring constantly. Cook until thick. Add vinegar or lemon juice, salt, and butter. Add diced cooked beets to the cooked sauce. Heat thoroughly.

CARROT STICKS

Scrape carrots if old, brush with scouring pad if very young ones. Cut to finger size.

STEWED FRUIT

Any fresh fruit in season or dried fruit, except prunes.

WEDNESDAY

MENU: Cottage cheese, Baked potatoes, Market vegetable, Mixed salad, Chocolate pudding

COTTAGE CHEESE

		25	40	50	60
Cheese	pounds	3	5	6	7

Use paprika garnish.

BAKED POTATOES

Wash thoroughly. Cook 15 minutes to let them dry. Remove from oven and rub with oil. Stick once or twice with fork when half done to prevent bursting. Cook at 350° F. until done. Cut to serving size.

MIXED SALAD

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Lettuce	heads	1	2	2	3
Tomatoes	pounds	1	1	2	3
Green pepper	pounds	⅛	¼	¼	½
Celery, chopped	cups	½	¾	1	1½
Leftover vegetables	cups	2	3	4	5

Soak lettuce early in the morning or day before. Put in clean dish towel and set in refrigerator. Shred and add the vegetables. Serve with French dressing, made as follows:

½ teaspoon salt
½ teaspoon celery salt
3 tablespoons sugar
1 cup tomato soup
¼ cup vinegar
½ cup salad oil
¼ teaspoon grated onion
garlic to taste

Mix salt, celery salt, and sugar. Add tomato soup, vinegar, salad oil, and grated onion. Beat well with rotary egg beater; pour into a jar. Cover and store in cool place. Shake well before using.

CHOCOLATE PUDDING

		25	40	50	60
Sugar	cups	1	1¾	2	3
Cornstarch or flour	tablespoons	5	8	10	12
Salt	teaspoons	1	1¾	2	3
Chocolate, ground	cups	¾	1	1¼	1½
Milk	cups	6	9	12	14
Eggs	number	2	3	4	6
Vanilla	teaspoons	1¼	2	2½	3

Combine sugar, cornstarch, salt, and chocolate. Add small amount of cold milk to flour mixture to make a smooth paste. Heat remain-

ing milk. Do not let it scorch. Add chocolate paste to heated milk. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Separate eggs. Beat yolks and small amount of hot milk and chocolate. Pour egg mixture into thickened pudding and cook 5 minutes. Remove from fire and cool. Add vanilla. Beat egg whites until stiff. Fold into pudding mixture.

THURSDAY

MENU: Liver loaf, Rice, Steamed carrots, Celery sticks, Fruit cup

LIVER LOAF

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings			
		25	40	50	60
Onion, chopped	cups	1	1½	2	2½
Liver, ground	pounds	2½	4	5	6
Bacon, cooked and diced	pounds	½	¾	1	1¼
Wheat Germ	cups	1	1½	2	2½
Salt	teaspoons	2	3	4	5
Eggs, beaten	number	2	3	4	5
Tomatoes, cooked and strained	cups	1½	2½	3	3½
Milk	cups	1	1½	2	2½

Combine chopped onion, ground liver, cooked bacon and fat, wheat germ and salt. Add beaten eggs and cooked tomatoes to the liver mixture. Mix thoroughly. Bake in covered pan in a moderate oven (300° F.) for 1 hour and 15 minutes, or until it feels firm; then remove cover, drain off juice and return for browning. When browned, remove and cut into sections, cover with gravy and return to oven to keep hot at 200° F. Keep covered. For gravy, add tomato liquor and water to broth to desired amount. Thicken with flour.

RICE

		25	40	50	60
Rice	cups	1½	2½	3	4

Wash rice. Boil hard for 20 minutes. Wash with cold water. Steam 20 minutes in steamer.

STEAMED CARROTS

		25	40	50	60
Carrots	large bunches	2½	4	5	6

Scrape old carrots, brush young ones with scouring pad. Shred and cook 10 minutes. Add salt. No butter.

CELERY STICKS

Wash celery and cut to finger size.

FRUIT CUP

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Mixed fruit	No. 2½ cans	3	5	6	7

Canned fruit only, or in combination of half fresh and half canned fruit.

FRIDAY

MENU: Macaroni with cheese, Peas, Vegetable salad, Gelatin

MACARONI WITH CHEESE

		25	40	50	60
Cheese	pounds	1½	2½	3	3
Macaroni	pounds	1	1½	2	2½

Cook macaroni seasoned with salt. Wash in cold water and put in baking dish. Add grated cheese to medium white sauce and cook in double boiler till cheese is melted. Then cover macaroni with sauce and keep hot in oven until time to serve.

WHITE SAUCE

		25	40	50	60
Milk, heated	cups	2	3	4	5
Butter, or other fat	tablespoons	2	3	4	5
Flour	tablespoons	2	3	4	5
Salt	teaspoons	1	1½	2	2½

Melt the butter. Add flour to melted butter, stirring constantly. Add heated milk, a little at a time. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Add salt.

PEAS

		25	40	50	60
Peas	No. 2 cans	3	5	6	7

Heat from can. No butter.

VEGETABLE SALAD

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Green pepper	pounds	½	¾	1	1¼
Cabbage	pounds	1½	2¼	3	3

Mix the shredded cabbage and green pepper with lemon and canned milk dressing as follows:

1 cup milk
2 tablespoons sugar
½ teaspoon salt
⅓ cup lemon juice

GELATIN

Use prepared gelatin dessert if available. If not, use fruit nectar a gelatin prepared as follows:

		25	40	50	60
Juice	quarts	1	1¾	2	3
Gelatin	ounces	8	14	16	18
Sugar	cups	1½	2	3	4
Water	quarts	1	1¼	2	3

Dissolve gelatin in half the cold water. Heat the juice and remaining water and pour into gelatin. Chill until firm.

MONDAY

MENU: Hard-boiled eggs, Buttered noodles, Carrots, Celery, apple, and raisin salad, Maple pudding

HARD-BOILED EGGS One egg for each person. Cook eggs. Put into cold water at once to facilitate peeling. Cut in half lengthwise. Sprinkle with salt and paprika.

BUTTERED NOODLES

		25	40	50	60
Noodles	pounds	1	1⅔	2	2½

Cook noodles in boiling salted water until tender. Drain and season with butter.

CARROTS

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Carrots	large bunches	2½	4	5	6

Scrape old carrots, brush young ones with scouring pad. Shred and cook until tender. Add salt. No butter.

CELERY, APPLE, AND RAISIN SALAD

		25	40	50	60
Celery	small stalks	1	1	1½	2
Apples	pounds	1½	2½	3	4
Raisins	cups	1	1½	2	2½

Peel and dice apples, wash and dice celery, and add raisins. Mix together with cooked dressing in the following proportions: 1 cup apple, ½ cup celery, 1 tablespoon raisins. Use canned fruit salad if apples are not available. Pour grapefruit juice over apples to keep them white, drain off when ready to mix and save juice for gelatin.

1 cup milk
½ cup butter or other fat
1 teaspoon salt
⅛ teaspoon dry mustard
3 tablespoons flour
2 tablespoons sugar
1 beaten egg
½ cup vinegar

Heat the milk; melt the butter; sift the salt, dry mustard, flour and sugar together. Add the flour mixture to the melted butter, stirring constantly. Do not let it brown. Add the heated milk, a little at a time, stirring constantly. Add a little hot mixture to the beaten eggs. Mix well, return to the cooked milk mixture. Add vinegar slowly, stirring constantly. Cool.

MAPLE PUDDING

		25	40	50	60
Sugar	cups	1	1½	2	2½
Cornstarch	cups	⅔	1	1⅓	2
Salt	teaspoons	½	¾	1	1¼
Milk	quarts	1½	2¼	3	3½
Eggs	number	2	3	4	5
Maple flavoring	teaspoons	1	1½	2	2½

Combine the sugar, cornstarch, and salt. Add a small amount of cold milk to flour mixture and make a smooth paste. Heat the remaining milk. Do not let it scorch. Stir constantly, cooking until thick. Separate eggs. Beat yolks and add small amount of hot milk. Pour egg mixture into thickened pudding and cook 5 minutes. Remove from fire and cool. Add maple. Beat egg whites until stiff. Fold into pudding mixture.

TUESDAY

MENU: Heart in Casserole, Steamed rice, Market vegetable, Carrot sticks, Applesauce

HEART IN CASSEROLE

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings			
		25	40	50	60
Beef Heart	pounds	3	5	6	7
Onions (cut small)	cups	½	¾	1	1¼

Have heart coarsely ground by the butcher. Brown in fat. Brown onions and add to heart. Put in roasting pan and cover with hot water. Season to taste with small amount of garlic and salt. Cook slowly for about one hour or until tender.

If the butcher will not grind the heart, boil pieces of heart day before. Cut in small pieces and brown with a little flour. Put in roasting pan and cover with tomato sauce and heat thoroughly.

STEAMED RICE

		25	40	50	60
Rice	cups	1½	2½	3	4

Wash rice; boil hard for 20 minutes. Wash with cold water. Steam 20 minutes in steamer.

CARROT STICKS

Scrape carrots if old, brush with scouring pad if very young ones. Cut finger size.

APPLESAUCE

Canned applesauce may be used or fresh should be made not too sweet and seasoned with lemon juice and nutmeg.

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Apples	pounds	3	5	6	7
Sugar	cups	½	¾	1	1¼
Vanilla	teaspoons	½	¾	1	1¼
Nutmeg	teaspoons	½	¾	1	1¼
Lemon juice	teaspoons	2	3	4	5

Peel and core apples. Cook apples and sugar. When soft, mash apples and season with vanilla, nutmeg and lemon juice.

WEDNESDAY

MENU: Lamb stew, Peas, Lettuce salad, Cake

LAMB STEW

		25	40	50	60
Lamb	pounds (boned)	3	5	6	7
Potatoes	pounds	2	3	4	5
Onions	cups	1	1½	2	2½
Carrots	bunches	2	3	4	5
Salt	teaspoons	3	4	6	7

Use shoulder or neck of lamb cubed by butcher. Cook meat and remove bones. Cube vegetables and cook in meat broth with meat until tender. Thicken with flour and use artificial coloring. Season with salt.

PEAS

		25	40	50	60
Canned peas	No. 2 cans	3	5	6	7

LETTUCE SALAD

		25	40	50	60
Lettuce	small heads	3	5	6	7

Soak lettuce early in the morning or day before in cold water. Put in clean dish towel and set in refrigerator. Shred and serve with sugar and vinegar dressing.

CAKE

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Milk	cups	1	1¾	2	2½
Baking powder	tablespoons	1½	2⅓	3	3½
Salt	teaspoons	¼	¼	½	¾
Flour, sifted	cups	2	2¾	4	6
Butter or other fat	cups	½	¾	1	1⅓
Sugar	cups	1	1¾	2	2½
Eggs	number	2	3	4	5
Vanilla	teaspoons	1	2	2	3

Add baking powder and salt to sifted flour and sift together. Cream butter, add sugar to creamed butter and cream until fluffy. Add beaten eggs to creamed mixture and beat well. Add sifted flour mixture and milk alternately to creamed mixture. The first and last additions should be the flour mixture. Add vanilla and beat well. Pour into greased baking pans. Bake in a moderate oven (350° F.) for 30 to 35 minutes. Cool. Cut into squares and serve.

THURSDAY

MENU: Spanish rice with ground beef, Market vegetable, Apple sticks, Canned fruit

SPANISH RICE

		25	40	50	60
Rice	cups	1½	2	3	4
Onion, chopped	cups	¼	½	¾	1
Beef, ground	pounds	1	2½	4	5
Tomatoes, cooked	cups	2	3	4	5
Salt	teaspoons	1½	2½	3	4

Wash rice thoroughly and drain. Cook chopped onion in bacon grease. Add drained rice to hot fat. Cook until light brown, stir frequently. Do not let it burn. Crumble the ground beef into browned rice mixture. Mix well. Cover baking pan. Bake in moderate oven (350° F.) for 45 minutes or until rice is done. Stir occasionally. Add more tomato juice if needed.

APPLE STICKS

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings 25	40	50	60
Apples	pounds	3	4	5	6

Wash apples and cut into fourths. Peel for two-year-olds; leave skins on for others.

CANNED FRUIT

		25	40	50	60
Mixed fruit	No. 2½ cans	3	5	6	7

FRIDAY

MENU: Baked salmon, Mashed potatoes, Peas, Mixed salad, Canned apricots

BAKED SALMON

		25	40	50	60
Salmon	pounds	3	4½	6	7

Scrape fish, removing all scales. Wash thoroughly. Put into greased baking pan. Add grated onion, salt, butter, and lemon juice over top and bake slowly in moderate oven for 45 minutes to 1 hour. Baste with juices.

MASHED POTATOES

		25	40	50	60
Potatoes	pounds	3	5	6	7

Cook potatoes until done. Mash and season with fresh milk and butter. Salt to taste.

PEAS

		25	40	50	60
Peas	No. 2 cans	3	5	6	7

Heat from can. No butter.

MIXED SALAD

Ingredients	Measurement	Number of Servings			
		25	40	50	60
Lettuce	heads	1	2	2	3
Tomatoes	pounds	1	1	2	3
Green pepper	pounds	¼	½	½	¾
Celery, chopped	cups	2	4	5	6
Mixed vegetables (can be leftovers)	cups	2	3	4	5

Soak lettuce early in the morning or day before. Put in clean dish towel and set in refrigerator. Shred and add the vegetables. Serve with mock mayonnaise, made as follows:

1 egg
2 teaspoons sugar
1 teaspoon dry mustard
1 teaspoon salt
½ cup vinegar
1 cup salad oil
¼ cup flour
1 cup water
⅛ teaspoon paprika

Put eggs, sugar, mustard, salt, vinegar, and salad oil in bowl. Add water slowly to flour, mixing well. Cook 5 minutes to make smooth paste. Slowly add hot paste to egg mixture. Beat until mixture thickens. Add paprika.

CANNED APRICOTS

		25	40	50	60
Apricots	No. 2½ cans	3	5	6	7

VI

Kitchen Hints

COTTON WASH DRESSES or uniforms should be worn in the kitchen. Wool or silk dresses are not appropriate. Wear fresh aprons when serving. Do not wear fancy or excessive jewelry in the kitchen. Wear hair nets or some type of head covering.

Left-over food is never taken home by anyone. The practice of buying food products from the delivery men to be taken home is not permitted. When staff members leave with bottles of milk, loaves of bread, and groceries, much criticism is directed toward the schools, even though these foods were individually purchased.

Cooks and housekeepers should not make any comments about a child's eating or behavior within his hearing, nor about the food to children or teachers. They should not take away a plate from in front of the child but should wait until the teacher has placed it in the pile of plates to be removed.

Cooks and housekeepers should help any children to sit more comfortably in their chairs during meal time; should keep their eyes on the tables and teachers and be ready to bring food from carts or kitchen or move it from table to table; should always have a cloth on the food cart for wiping up spilled food.

It is the responsibility of the cook to see that the kitchen floor is mopped daily.

Wrap all garbage, and line garbage cans with newspaper. The garbage can in the kitchen should be washed out with some disinfectant in the water.

Refrigerators should be defrosted at least once a week, more often if necessary. A solution of warm water and baking soda may be

used to wash the inside of the refrigerator. Because of the limited amount of space, school refrigerators should not be used for storing personal groceries.

Clean stoves daily. It is less trouble keeping a stove clean if spilled foods are wiped up immediately.

Shoes, hats, or coats should not be left in food storage rooms or closets.

Cod-liver oil should be stored in dark bottles and refrigerated. Wheat germ should also be stored in the refrigerator, if there is sufficient space, to prevent its becoming rancid.

Unwrap, wash, and store all fresh vegetables the day they are delivered. Meat should be wrapped loosely in wax paper and placed in coldest part of refrigerator. Food which is left over should be carefully refrigerated. If not used within 48 hours, it should be thrown away.

Meat loaves should not be stretched by addition of macaroni or spaghetti. Stew meat should be cut in small pieces.

Do not chop cabbage too long before serving as Vitamin C is lost on exposure to air.

Always mash banana or hubbard squash, if used as market vegetable, to serve to nursery school children.

Use artificial coloring for darkening the gravies of tongue and heart.

Onions should be chopped very fine whether used cooked or raw.

Evaporated milk may be used to give a creamier consistency and added nutrition to sauces, gravies, desserts, and mashed vegetables.

Do not serve corn, watermelon, grapes, or cantaloupe to nursery school children.

Do not dilute fruit juices with water or with syrup from canned fruits.

Do not take the cream off the milk for use in coffee.

Use honey instead of sugar for sweetening juices and cereals. Few schools use sufficient honey for sweetening. It is much easier to put sugar in the juice, sauces, cereals, or fruit, but there is greater food value in honey.

After vegetables are peeled, do not allow them to stand in water for long periods of time before cooking.

Do not substitute fruit for the fruit juices.

VII

Standards

MANY CITIES AND STATES have laws regulating the operation of nursery schools. The local board of health or the state department of social welfare prescribes the rules and regulations which must be met in order to secure an operating license. These regulations can be obtained in written form. Sometimes they are brief statements of absolute requirements; sometimes they are more general in stating what things are desirable in a nursery school as well as what are the minimum requirements upon which a license will be issued.

The standards given here are written in a three-column form. The first column lists the basic requirements which must be fulfilled before a school can be opened, and represents a standard below which no school should ever fall. The second column lists the conditions recommended for schools of the type described throughout this book, the public nursery school. While these conditions may not in all cases be the best from a theoretical point of view, they are the most desirable ones under the prevailing circumstances and with the existing financial situation. The third column lists the maximum conditions. In many cases these coincide with the recommended. It is given to show at what point there is too much of a good thing.

The listings given are all of a concrete nature and specific to the last detail. A general rating of a school could be made by noting how many checks it gets in the recommended column and how many in the minimum column. All figures on number of children refer to number enrolled, not number in attendance.

Under a system of public licensing of nursery schools, it is im-

possible to have enough inspectors who are nursery school experts. Furthermore, it is undesirable to have them because such persons are badly needed in the nursery schools themselves. Arguments between an inspector and a nursery school supervisor sometimes develop because of this difference of background, but are less likely to do so if there is a recognized list of specific things as a guide.

These standards are offered as a basic form from which a licensing authority could make its own chart. Needless to say, there exist differences of opinion regarding many of the subjects covered in the following listings, particularly in the recommended column. However, full agreement on the minimum standards should be possible — it would do much to orient the thinking on many nursery schools.

ORGANIZATION

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
PERSONNEL		
Responsible person or organization which assumes all liability, debt, or obligation. Such person must have verifiable reputation for being able to give responsible supervision of non-brutal quality to children.	Non-profit, incorporated group, working for social and educational ideals and purposes; preferably a group of both men and women who show special interest in emotional as well as physical needs of children.	Same as recommended. Not more than 25 people on governing board so that their personal interest is maintained.
MEETINGS		
At stated intervals.	Once a month.	More often if necessary.
RECORDS		
Written financial and statistical records on intake and outgo.	Audited financial reports. Complete intake and outgo statistics. Minutes of meetings. Reports of Committees. Special reports.	Same as recommended, plus properly conducted research studies and special information of pertinent character.
RESPONSIBILITY		
Delegated to proper person and assumed by that person.	Delegated to proper persons. Responsibility for all happenings assumed by individuals and the corporation.	Same as recommended.
COMPLIANCE WITH LAW		
Must secure proper licenses.	Aims to follow recommended standards rather than the minimum for licensing.	Reports to licensing agency any unsolved problems.

BUILDINGS

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
BUILDING		
Not more than two stories, no basement classrooms.	One story above ground, built for nursery school purposes.	Same as recommended. See Chapter 2.
FIRE PROTECTION		
Compliance with rules and regulations of state fire marshal.	Compliance with recommendations as well as regulations of state fire marshal. Regular fire drills.	Fireproof building which is practically free from fire hazard.
INDOOR SPACE		
Combined indoor sleeping, eating, and play space 30 sq. ft. per child enrolled.	40 sq. ft. per child enrolled.	50 sq. ft. per child enrolled.
SLEEPING SPACE		
15 sq. ft. per child enrolled.	20 sq. ft. per child enrolled. Separate sleep room only if enrollment of school could not be increased if sleep room were also used for activities.	25 sq. ft. per child enrolled.
OUTDOOR SPACE		
60 sq. ft. per child enrolled.	100 sq. ft. per child enrolled. No ells, entire yard visible from any spot in yard.	Not so large that teacher cannot get from one side of yard to the other on quick notice.
YARD SURFACE		
Must drain water off.	Asphalt. Some grass, trees, shrubs, flowers. Level yard space for wheel toys, grass under swing and jungle gym.	Same as recommended. See Chapter 2.
FENCE		
Complete enclosure of yard. Lock on gate that child cannot unfasten.	Complete enclosure, boarded for wind, wired where children enjoy looking out. Good lock on gate.	Same as recommended.
EXPOSURES		
None.	Sun, shade, protection from wind. Covered yard for rainy-day outdoor play.	Same as recommended.
NEIGHBORHOOD		
200 ft. away from a saloon.	Out of neighborhood of drunken men, away from heavy industrial smoke and dirt, accessible to transportation.	Every 50 square blocks so that every child could go to nursery school.
KITCHEN		
Separate room having stove, sink, and refrigerator.	Same as minimum with good equipment, conveniently arranged. Not too large a room. Used for cooking purposes only.	Same as recommended.

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
ISOLATION ROOM 50 sq. ft. per 30 children enrolled in separate room or a partitioned off space.	Separate room off playroom where child can be observed. Private toilet and wash basin. Well lighted and ventilated. Washable cot, table, chair, and toys.	Same as recommended.
LAUNDRY Tub for washing soiled clothes, mops, paints.	Deep sink for soiled pants, 1 for bibs and tea towels, 1 for paints and mops — placed in building where needed.	Same as recommended.
WASHROOMS 1 toilet seat per 10 children. 1 wash basin per 10 children. Soap and towel provisions. Toilets must be inside building so that they are heated and directly accessible on rainy days.	Sump in each toilet room. 1 toilet per 5 children. 1 wash basin per 5 children with warm water only. Lockers for towels, mirrors over basins. All fixtures scaled to size. No storage in toilet room. Toilets between each playroom and playground.	Same as recommended. See Chapter 2.
STORAGE SPACE Medicine cabinet out of reach of children and kept locked. Shelves for food and dishes in kitchen. All unused articles away from children's play space.	A proper place to put everything where it is convenient and protected from dirt, with due regard to esthetic standards. Place for broken toys, old lumber, etc.	Same as recommended. Not many empty shelves or closets. No big unused rooms, or seldom used ones.
OFFICE None.	One which can be used for private conferences. Equipped with chairs, desk, telephone, good lamp.	Same as recommended. Any additional office space as needed.
CONFERENCE ROOM None.	One big enough for workshop or for parent groups.	Workshop room and separate parents' room unless children could make better use of space.
HEATING Some adequate type which is guarded so that children are not burned on the hot apparatus. Heater for hot water.	Central heat for every room. No fireplaces, stoves, electric heaters. One hot water heater for dish washing, one for hand washing kept set at a lower temperature.	Same as recommended.
ELECTRICITY Passed by building inspector.	Same as minimum, plus plug-in outlets at height of four feet. Good overhead lights. No homemade connections.	Same as recommended.

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
SURFACES		
Roof free from big leaks. Washable floors and walls and woodwork. Only small mud holes in playground.	Good roof, linoleum or Mastapave floors. Washable painted walls and ceilings. High gloss paint or varnish on all furniture. Tile floor in toilets. Washable outdoor porch, floors in good repair. No mud holes in yard.	Same as recommended.
SANITATION		
No breeding ground for flies within 300 ft. Rat-proofed cellar. Enough garbage cans and kept clean. No garbage pails accessible to children. Frequent garbage removal. No trash accumulation. Health inspection of all children and employees. Drinking fountain or paper cups and container.	Same as minimum, plus high standard of cleanliness and sanitation in all processes. Drinking fountain in each room and play yard.	No germ phobia atmosphere. The children allowed to get dirty, but the premises should be kept clean.
EXITS		
All open outward. Safety locks up high on those to street. Screen door on kitchen door. Exit from each room to hallway or outside. One exit per 15 children per room.	Same as minimum, plus exits well placed. All door fastenings in good working order at all times.	Same as recommended.
VENTILATION		
Windows in playrooms, kitchen, and toilet. Guards over dangerous windows.	Windows well placed at children's height, which open at top with glass that admits ultra violet light. Enough windows for light without glare, with both light and dark shades. Not too many. Draft deflectors if necessary. All easily opened and locked safely. No broken panes.	Same as recommended.
LUXURIES		
None.	Venetian blinds. Window screens, violet ray irradiation. Soundproof ceilings. Screened observation room. Teachers' rest rooms. Orderly, attractive rooms at all times.	Same as recommended.

INDOOR EQUIPMENT

TABLES		
Enough tables to seat the number of children enrolled rather than the average attendance. Must be in at least two heights, and not over 20 inches high.	Enough to seat the number of children enrolled in three heights of 16, 18, and 20 inches with two or three other small tables for books and special activities if there is sufficient room space.	Same as recommended. Extra chairs and tables should not be left standing around in the play room but should be stored elsewhere.

	MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
CHAIRS	One chair not more than 10 inches high for each child. One chair for each teacher.	Same as minimum, plus three extras per room. 7-inch chairs for 2 yr. olds. 8-inch chairs for 3 yr. olds. 9-inch chairs for 4 yr. olds. 10-inch chairs for 5 yr. olds.	Same as recommended unless there is sufficient space to have extra chairs for special purposes which do not take floor space that could be more profitably used.
COTS	One cot per child in good state of repair.	One extra cot for every 8 children for quick replacement due to breakage. Cots covered with leatherette and padded underneath for warmth.	Same as recommended.
LOCKERS	One per child.	One extra for each 10 children.	Same as recommended.
CUPBOARDS	Sufficient to hold blocks and essential materials. Must be high for medicines, teachers' books, paints, and low for the children to get at the blocks, crayons, books, clay.	Both open and closed cupboards sufficient in number to care for all the materials, supplies, broken toys, and a little cupboard space to spare. No built-in cupboards in playroom.	Not more than a slight surplus above the needed space. Empty cupboards are a nuisance to keep clean and from becoming catch-alls.
EASELS	One for each school unit.	One per 10 children.	One per 8 children.
STEPS FOR TOILETS	One for each adult toilet.	Same as minimum. A low chair is good.	Same as recommended.
BENCHES	One of proper height placed wherever children are required to stand or sit for any length of time during any routine.	Same as minimum. Others as desired.	Same as recommended.
SCREENS	None.	Three or four per school for use that might occur. Not to be used to separate cots. Not used to make walls for doll corner if avoidable.	Same as recommended.
FINGER PAINT DRYING RACK	None.	One with 20 shelves for each room, or more, if useful.	Same as recommended.

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
COT DOLLY None.	If beds are not stored near sleeping space.	Same as recommended.
FOOD GUERNEY None.	One for each situation where food must be carried a long distance.	Same as recommended.
PHONOGRAPH None.	One for each room.	Same as recommended.
PIANO None.	One for music room.	Same as recommended.
SANDBOX None.	One box for each room for rainy day use only.	Same as recommended.
CARPENTER BENCH None.	None for children under six.	One for each ten children over six years of age.
TEACHERS' CHAIRS One per room. Two per office.	One per room, if desirable. Extras as office will accommodate.	Two per room. Same as recommended.
TEACHERS' COUCH None.	One per 6 teachers. Can be made of orange crates and pad.	Same as recommended.
TEACHERS' DESK One for each operating unit.	Two per operating unit, one for office, one for entrance hall. None in playrooms.	Same as recommended, unless another is needed for special purpose.
BULLETIN BOARDS One for staff and parents.	One for parents. One for staff. Two per room for children.	Same as recommended with possible extras for children.
FILING CABINET One for records.	Sufficient number of files to hold all records properly.	Same as recommended.
BLACKBOARDS One per school for writing instructions and messages of all kinds.	One for parents. One for teachers. One per room for children.	Same as recommended.

OUTDOOR EQUIPMENT

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
CLIMBING APPARATUS Some type of jungle gym, tree house, or safe climbing device per operating unit.	One per group unit outside and one for rainy day space.	Same as recommended.
SANDBOX One.	One for each yard.	Same as recommended.
SWINGS One per operating unit with leather seat.	One per 10 children per group unit.	One per eight children per group unit.
WHEEL TOYS One tricycle per 10 or less children, plus 1 kiddie car or wagon per same number of children.	Same as minimum, plus one wheel toy per 3 children enrolled.	Same as recommended.
ROCKING BOATS None.	One per yard unit.	Same as recommended.
HOLLOW BLOCKS None.	Three per child.	Four per child.
BOARDS Two 1 foot by 6 inches by 60 inches.	One board 1 foot by 6 inches by 60 inches per 6 children. One long plank per yard.	Same as recommended.
SAW HORSES One.	One per 10 children in two sizes.	Same as recommended.
PACKING BOXES One.	One per 10 children in assorted sizes.	One per 8 children.
HOLLOW BARRELS None.	One or 2 per yard.	Same as recommended.
LOW BENCHES None.	Enough to seat all children at once.	One or two.
WASTE BASKET One	One per yard.	Same as recommended.

MATERIALS

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
PAINTS		
Easel paints in four colors. Sufficient quantity to be used freely each day.	Ten colors, enough for daily use in assorted colors.	Same as recommended.
BRUSHES		
One per 5 children, in two widths.	One per three children, in three widths.	Same as recommended.
FINGER PAINT MATERIALS		
None.	Enough for daily use of all children.	Same as recommended.
BLOCKS		
"Unit blocks," 10 per child in assorted sizes. Table blocks, 5 per child. No ABC blocks, or notched logs. Hollow blocks — none	Twenty unit blocks per child. Ten table blocks per child. Two hollow blocks per child.	Twenty-five per child. Same as recommended. Same as recommended.
CLAY		
One pound per child.	Two pounds per child.	Same as recommended.
PREPARED CLAY		
None.	One pound per child.	Same as recommended.
SOUR DOUGH		
None.	As needed.	Same as recommended.
CRAYONS		
Five per child.	Ten per child.	Same as recommended.
COLORED CHALK CRAYON		
None.	Five per child.	Same as recommended.
SMALL WOODEN DOLLS		
None.	Two per child.	Same as recommended.
INTERLOCKING TRAINS		
None.	Two cars per child.	Three per child.
TOY ANIMALS		
Small assortment. Assorted table toys. Small assortment.	Larger assortment. Large assortment.	See Chapter 4. See Inventory.
DOLLS		
One per 10 children	One per 7 children.	One per 5 children.

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
DOLL FURNITURE 1 doll bed, 1 table, 2 chairs, 1 box for clothes per operating unit.	Following items per room unit: 1 bed, 4 chairs, 1 table, 1 rocker, 1 box chest, 1 stove, 1 sink, 1 settee, 1 broom, 1 dust pan, 1 iron, 1 ironing board, 1 clock, 1 radio, 1 mirror, 4 cups, 4 plates, 4 knives, forks and spoons, food packages, 1 frying pan, 3 pots, 1 teapot, 1 pitcher, 1 sugar bowl, 1 toaster, 6 milk bottles, and any other well selected articles that are suitable.	Same as recommended with slight increase in quantity, but not enough to interfere with dramatic play.
DRESS UP CLOTHES One piece per child: hats, shoes, shirts, purses, dresses, blouses, shawls.	Three per child.	Same as recommended.
BEADS Three per child.	Ten per child.	Same as recommended.
PUZZLES One per 5 children.	Two per 5 children, of varying difficulty.	Same as recommended.
PEG BOARDS One per 5 children.	Two per 5 children.	Same as recommended.
SCISSORS One per 5 children.	One per 2 children.	One per 2 children.
NEWSPRINT Enough for restricted use on one side only	Enough for unlimited use on one side only.	Enough for unlimited use on one side only, with due regard for unnecessary waste.
COLLAGE ARTICLES None.	Good assortment.	Same as recommended.
PASTE Water and flour as needed.	Quarts of prepared non-poisonous paste.	Same as recommended.
PENCILS A dozen per operating unit.	Enough to be able to find one readily.	Same as recommended.
PICTURES A few attractive, well-mounted, and placed.	Well-selected, mounted, and framed. Properly placed with good variety of subject matter and good art quality. Unlimited number for stories and scrap books.	Only those on bulletin boards, and ones to hang on the walls in terms of appropriate room decoration. Not a splotch of pictures all over the room.

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
BOOKS		
Children's scrap books: 1 per 3 children. Children's printed books: 1 per 5 children.	Two scrapbooks per child. Two printed books per child, to be replaced from time to time with new ones.	Three per child. Three per child.
TEACHERS' BOOKS		
None.	See Bibliography.	Same as recommended.
COOKBOOK		
Record of menus and recipes used.	One manuscript or printed source of recipes used.	Same as recommended.
OFFICE SUPPLIES		
Stationery, envelopes, stamps, calendar, roll book, receipt book, scratch paper, thumb tacks, ink, pens, paper clips, scotch tape, paper fasteners, manila folders, record forms, hammer, nails, screw driver, pliers.	Same in adequate quantity and quality.	Same as recommended.
SANDBOX TOYS		
One empty tin can and one shovel for every 5 children.	One shovel, can, and form mold for every 2 children.	Same as recommended.
PLANTS		
None.	Enough to decorate each room and to give children opportunity for nature study.	Fresh cut-flowers and blooming plants as budget will allow.
MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS		
None.	1 drum per seven children. 1 bell per seven children. 1 knocker per seven children. Others 1 per ten children.	1 drum per five children. 1 bell per five children. 1 knocker per five children. Others 1 per ten children.
CLOTHING AND LINEN		
6 pants per operating unit. 3 shirts per operating unit. 3 overalls per operating unit. 6 pair socks per operating unit. 1 blanket per child. 1 sheet per 10 * children. 1 pillow per child. 2 pillow cases per child. 1 bib per child. 2 towels per child. 1 apron per 10 children.	1 pr. pants per 2 children; more if the proportion of two-year-olds is high. 1 shirt per 5 children. 1 coverall per 5 children. 1 pair socks per 5 children. 15 blankets per 10 children. 1 sheet per 10 children.* 15 pillows per 10 children. 4 pillow cases per child. 3 bibs per child. 5 towels per child. 1 apron per 5 children.	More pants, shirts, coveralls, and socks if proportion of two-year-olds is greater. Same as recommended for blankets, sheets, pillows, cases, bibs, towels, and aprons.
DISHES		
One plate, glass, dessert dish, cereal dish, salad fork, and teaspoon per child. Four serving spoons per ten children.	Thirteen plates, glasses, dessert dishes, cereal dishes, salad forks, teaspoons and six serving spoons per ten children.	Same as recommended.

COOKING UTENSILS — See Chapter 4 for discussion.

CLEANING UTENSILS — See Chapter 4 for discussion.

*Assumes use of leatherette cots and pillows.

PERSONNEL QUALIFICATIONS

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
SUPERVISOR OR DIRECTOR		
Fully responsible person, who gives evidence of liking and understanding children, has high school education, keeps in good physical and mental state of health, able to direct staff, to keep records, and work with parents and children. Be in the 20 to 60 age group.	Same as minimum, plus several years of teaching experience, ability to plan menus, and college degree. Should know child development, maintain professional contacts, show demonstrated ability which is reflected in schools, and have ability to speak and write about nursery education. Be in the 25 to 50 age group. Give evidence of superior ability, be likeable.	Not too much theoretical education.
ASSISTANT SUPERVISOR OR DIRECTOR		
Same as supervisor except for taking partial responsibility. Be in the 20 to 60 age-group.	Same as for supervisor, except for taking partial responsibility, due to limitations of ability as well as position. Supervisor should be most competent on staff. Be in the 20 to 50 age group.	Same as recommended.
HEAD TEACHER		
Likes children, knows something of child development, takes full responsibility, keeps records, directs others. Be in the 20 to 60 age group.	Same as minimum, plus ability to create good group spirit in the school, have college degree, professional interests, ability to discuss nursery education. Be able to direct others, be liked by staff and children. Be in the 20 to 50 age group.	Same as recommended.
ASSISTANT HEAD TEACHER		
Same as for head teacher except for taking partial responsibility.	Same as minimum.	Same as recommended.
TEACHERS		
Like children, and understand them somewhat, be between ages of 18 and 60, able to follow instructions, and be in good health.	Like and understand children through knowledge of child development, and dynamic psychology, be eager to learn more, have college degree, be able to demonstrate good teaching ability, be neat and well-dressed, seem flexible, have considerable emotional maturity, be in age range from 20 to 45, give evidence of professional interest, be well-liked.	Same as recommended.
COOK		
Able to cook and keep the kitchen clean.	Same as minimum, plus ability to cook well, have good personality and appearance.	Same as recommended.

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
HOUSEKEEPER		
Able to perform duties assigned to her.	Able to do the variety of work assigned to her, be agreeable and efficient. See chapter on Organization.	Same as recommended.
JANITOR		
Able to keep building clean.	Same plus being an agreeable person.	Same as recommended.
PHYSICIAN		
A licensed M.D.	A licensed M.D. who likes children and works well with them. Takes full medical responsibility in case of epidemic exposure.	Same as recommended.
PSYCHOLOGIST		
None.	Psychologist not recommended.	Same as recommended.
SOCIAL WORKER		
None.	Social worker not recommended.	Same as recommended.
NUTRITIONIST		
None.	Usually none. Employed only for large system.	Same as recommended.
NUMBER OF STAFF IN ATTENDANCE		
2 adults per operating unit. 1 adult per 10 children. Someone in charge at all times.	Two teaching adults in attendance at all times for each group, plus cook, housekeeper, and janitor for regular hours of duty, substitutes for absent staff members. Over-all ratio of 1 to 8 for pupil-teacher hours; 1 to 5 for pupil-adult hours, with pupil-teacher ratio in two year old group being higher than that of the five year group. Head teacher, assistant head teacher, room teacher, all able to take charge, others usually not.	Same as recommended.

NUTRITION

PREPARATION OF FOOD		
Someone assigned to that duty who is not also responsible for looking after the children	Menus prepared under nutritionist's supervision. Menus and recipes strictly adhered to. Marketing and cooking supervised by head teacher.	Nutritionist only for large number of schools. Marketing and cooking supervised by nutritionist, if there is one.

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
AMOUNT OF FOOD		
No interval of more than three hours without food. Breakfast, mid-morning nourishment, noon dinner, and afternoon snack must be served. Meat at least three times a week, milk, vegetable and bread daily, dessert with every dinner. Children not forced to eat by any corporal means or threats of punishment.	Same as minimum with good menus and as much food prepared as children and adults will eat. Food cooked according to good recipes, attractively served, and eaten under cheerful surroundings. Daily minimum per child at nursery school, exclusive of breakfast: meat or cheese, 2 ounces; milk, 12 ounces; fruit juice, 3 ounces; cod liver oil, 2 teaspoons; cooked vegetable, 2 tablespoons, cooked starch, 2 tablespoons; raw vegetable, 1 serving; bread with margarine, ½ slice; dessert, 2 tablespoons.	Same as recommended.

PROGRAM

DAILY SCHEDULE		
Provision for regular periods of play, eating and sleeping, under adequate supervision. Children allowed to use equipment and materials which are to be kept available for appropriate use. Outdoor and indoor play time scheduled.	A well-developed program for the day, adjusted to age level requirements. See Program. Children taught proper use of materials and equipment and how to get along with others. See chapters on Indoor and Outdoor Activities. Outdoor and indoor play well balanced.	Same program as recommended. No pressure used to achieve certain results in painting, clay work or other activities. Children do not stay indoors all day unless it is raining, nor do they play outside all day because the weather is good.

DISCIPLINE

No spanking, slapping, or dragging of children by arms or legs. Children are not to be put in closets, tied to chairs, have their hands tied, or mouths washed out with soap. They may not be made to sit still for long periods, be forced to wear wet or soiled clothing, be deprived of food, or have cold water thrown in their faces. All physical and psychological brutality is forbidden.	Exclusion from the group being disturbed should be the only punishment. This should be done so that the child does not become further upset, but comes to feel in a better mood so that he can rejoin the group shortly. At all times the children should know what is expected of them in the way of behavior. Adults should be so well attuned to their normal misbehaviors that they do not feel like being mean to the children.	Same as recommended. See chapters on Discipline and Teaching Techniques.

HEALTH

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
EXAMINATION BEFORE ADMISSION		
All staff members and children admitted only after examination by physician. Written record of findings filed in school.	Same as minimum, plus staff of people who enjoy good health, are seldom absent, have no allergies.	Same as recommended.
MORNING INSPECTION		
Of all children according to standard procedure.	Same as minimum.	Same as recommended.
ISOLATION FOR INFECTION		
Isolation room where child is placed until called for by parent. Doctor's statement for readmission if considered advisable by school.	Same as minimum. Sick child not kept in school longer than absolutely necessary. Parent must come at once upon notification.	Same as recommended.
MEDICINE CABINET		
Containing alcohol, applicator sticks, cotton, methiolate, ready-made bandages, gauze pad, adhesive tape, tweezers, thermometer, manicure scissors, regular scissors, paper towels, soap, paper hankies, petrolatum, calamine lotion, tincture of green soap, flea powder. No iodine.	Same as minimum, or according to recommendation of school physician.	Same as recommended.
ALL INJURIES		
Should be reported to person in charge. Treatment of all wounds should be delegated to proper person.	Same as minimum.	Same as recommended.
WEIGHING AND MEASURING		
None.	Done monthly. Records kept.	Same as recommended.
IMMUNIZATIONS		
Those required by law.	For smallpox, diphtheria, pertussis. Tetanus toxoid. Booster doses as prescribed by physicians.	Same as recommended.
TUBERCULIN TESTS		
As required by law.	Annually.	Same as recommended.
X–RAY		
All staff members.	Annually for all staff members. For children who have positive tuberculin test reaction.	Same as recommended.

RECORDS

MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
MEDICAL		
Written record of initial health examination which includes history of illnesses and record of immunizations.	Same as minimum. Should be simple form on one sheet of paper if possible, with blank spaces for recording results of subsequent examinations.	Same as recommended. See Medical Form.
FACTUAL FILE CARD FOR EACH CHILD		
Showing name of child, address, addresses of both parents and marital status, places of work of parents, telephone numbers, person responsible for child when he is excluded from school, person to be called in event of illness and parents cannot be reached. Address and telephone of such person. Child's physician's name, address and telephone number. Date of birth of child, sex, dates of admission and withdrawal, reason for withdrawal.	Same as minimum, plus other items as needed. See Registration Form.	Same as recommended.
FINANCIAL FORM		
As required by law for determining income, eligibility, and fee.	Same, for public schools. For private schools, a form that is suitable. See Records, and forms in Chapter 15.	Same as recommended.
RECEIPT BOOKS		
In duplicate, for fee payments, one for parents, one for school.	In triplicate. See Records.	Same as recommended.
ATTENDANCE BOOK		
As required by law.	Same as minimum.	Same as recommended.
SOCIAL RECORD		
Individual record, showing reason for admission and leaving.	Same as minimum. See discussion under Records.	Same as recommended.

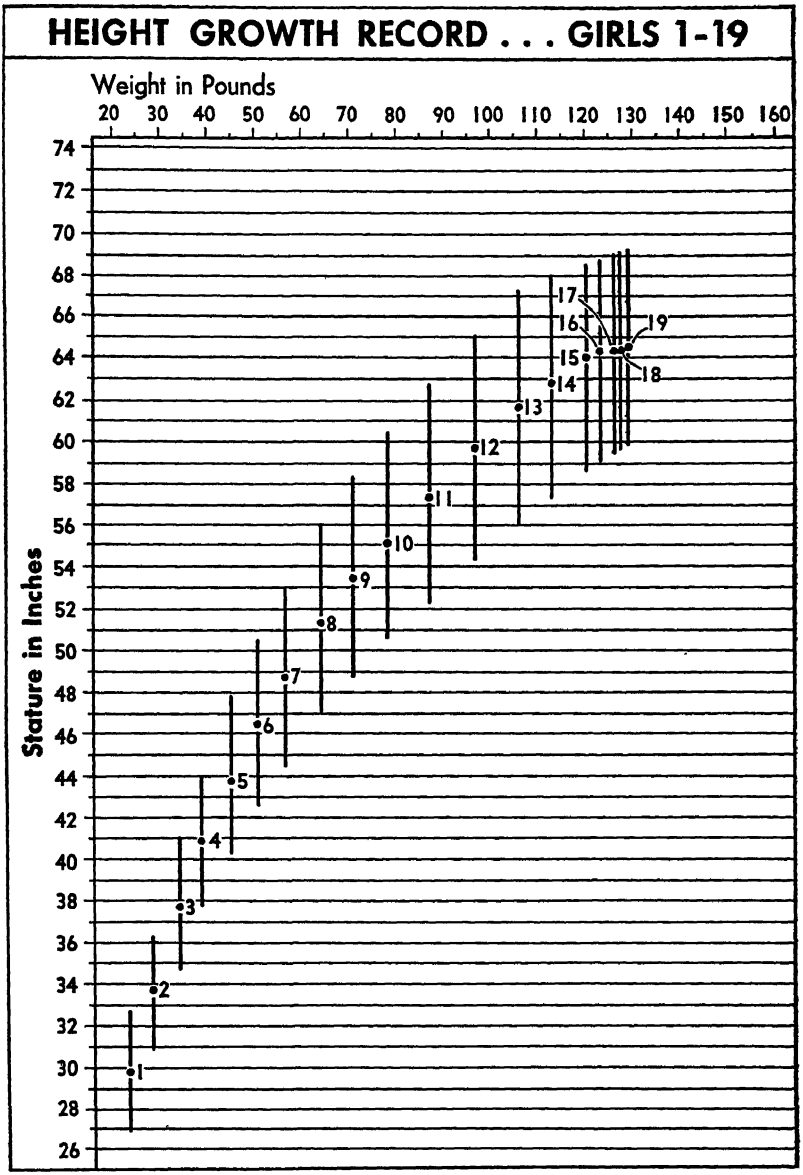
PARENT RELATIONS

INSPECTION		
Child must be brought to school by responsible person who can take child home if excluded by morning inspection, and such person must wait until inspection is completed before leaving the premises.	Same as minimum. See discussion under Parents.	Same as recommended.

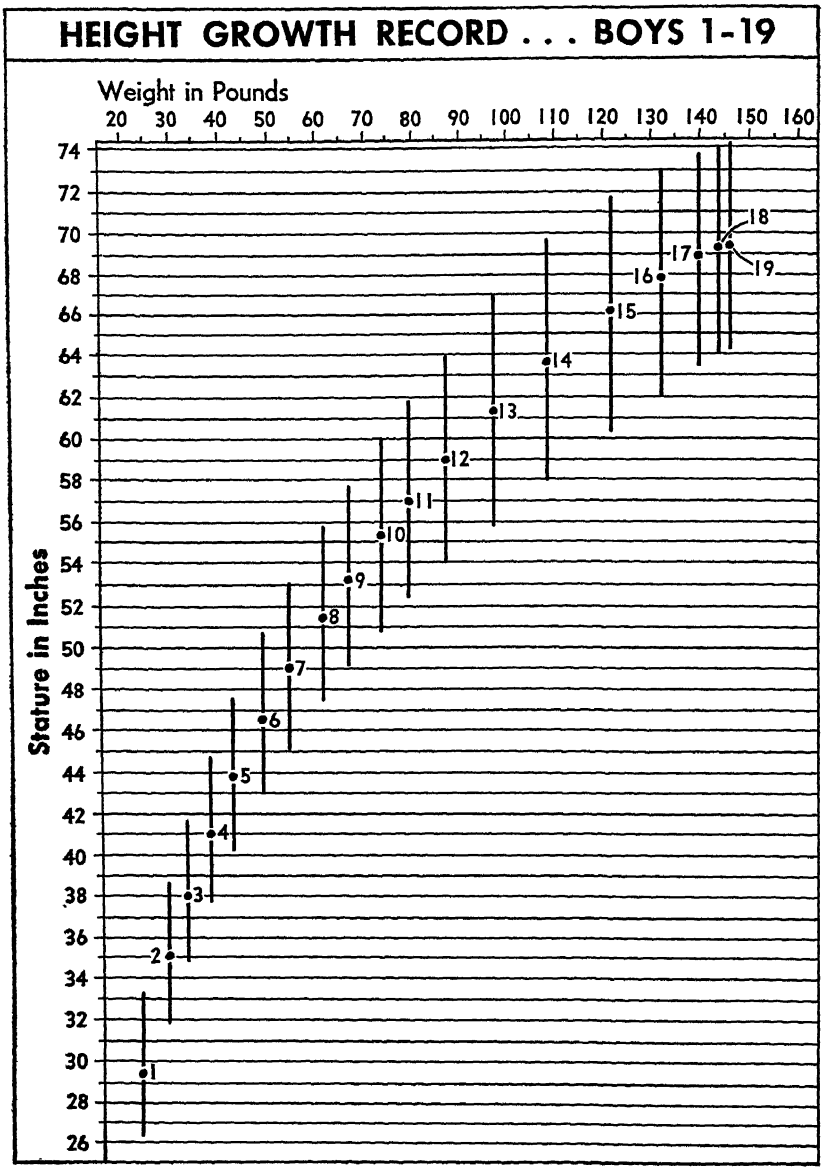
MINIMUM	RECOMMENDED	MAXIMUM
HOLIDAYS Parents must be notified of school holidays two days before such a holiday.	Same as minimum.	Same as recommended.
ILLNESS OR ACCIDENT Parents must be notified in event of serious illness or accident at once.	Same as minimum.	Same as recommended.

ORGANIZATION

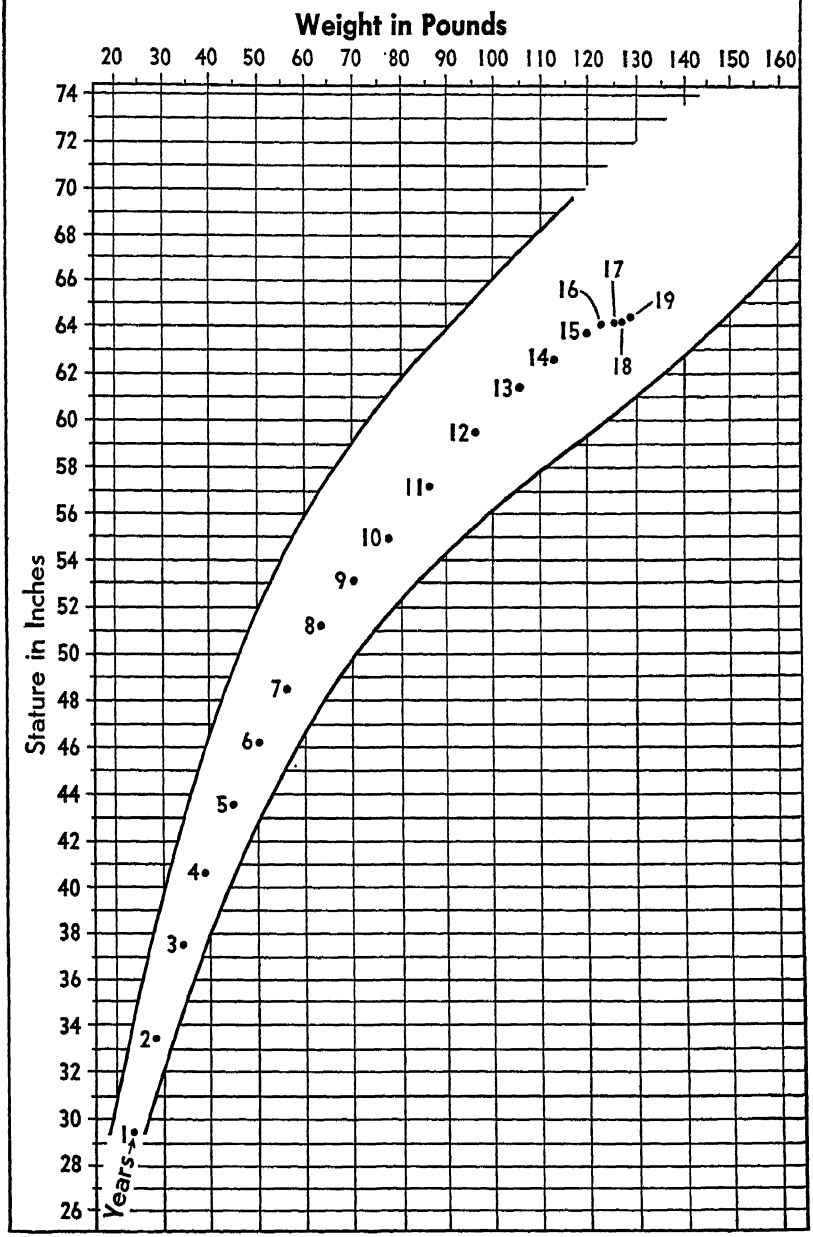
WAGES Regular pay days.	Regular pay days. Basic wage $175–$200 per month for 35 hr. week. Head teacher to receive more.	Dependent on conditions.
VACATION None.	One month with pay after one year. Two weeks with pay after six months.	Same as recommended.
SICK LEAVE None.	1 day per 2 months on accumulative basis.	Same as recommended.
HOURS OF WORK None.	6 to 7 per day.	8 per day.
RATING CHARTS None.	Some objective data and report for each person who is allowed access to this information about herself. See Staff.	Same as recommended.
SCHEDULES Delegation of duties to persons responsible by person in charge.	Written schedules. Clear understanding of everyone's responsibilities. See Organization.	Same as recommended.



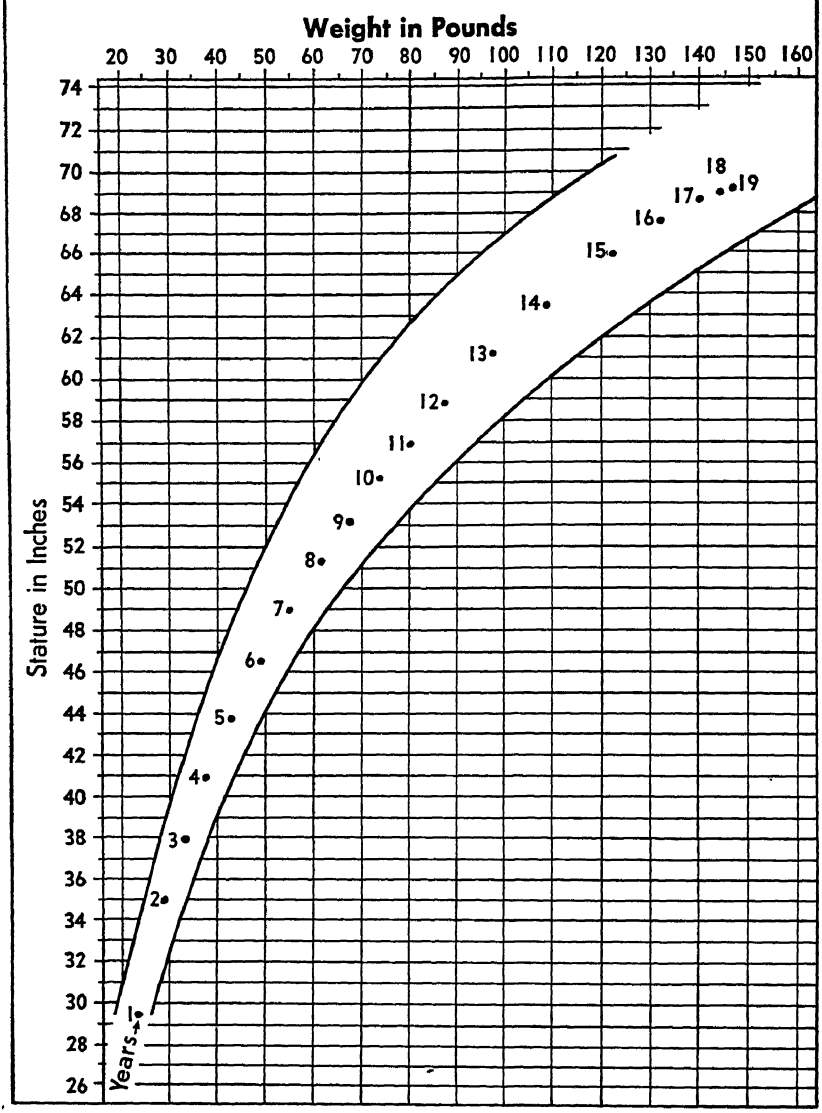
The Height and Weight Growth Charts presented on these pages were standardized by Leona Bayer, M.D., and Horace Gray, M.D. Originally reproduced in the *American Journal of Diseases of Children*, American Medical Association, 1935.

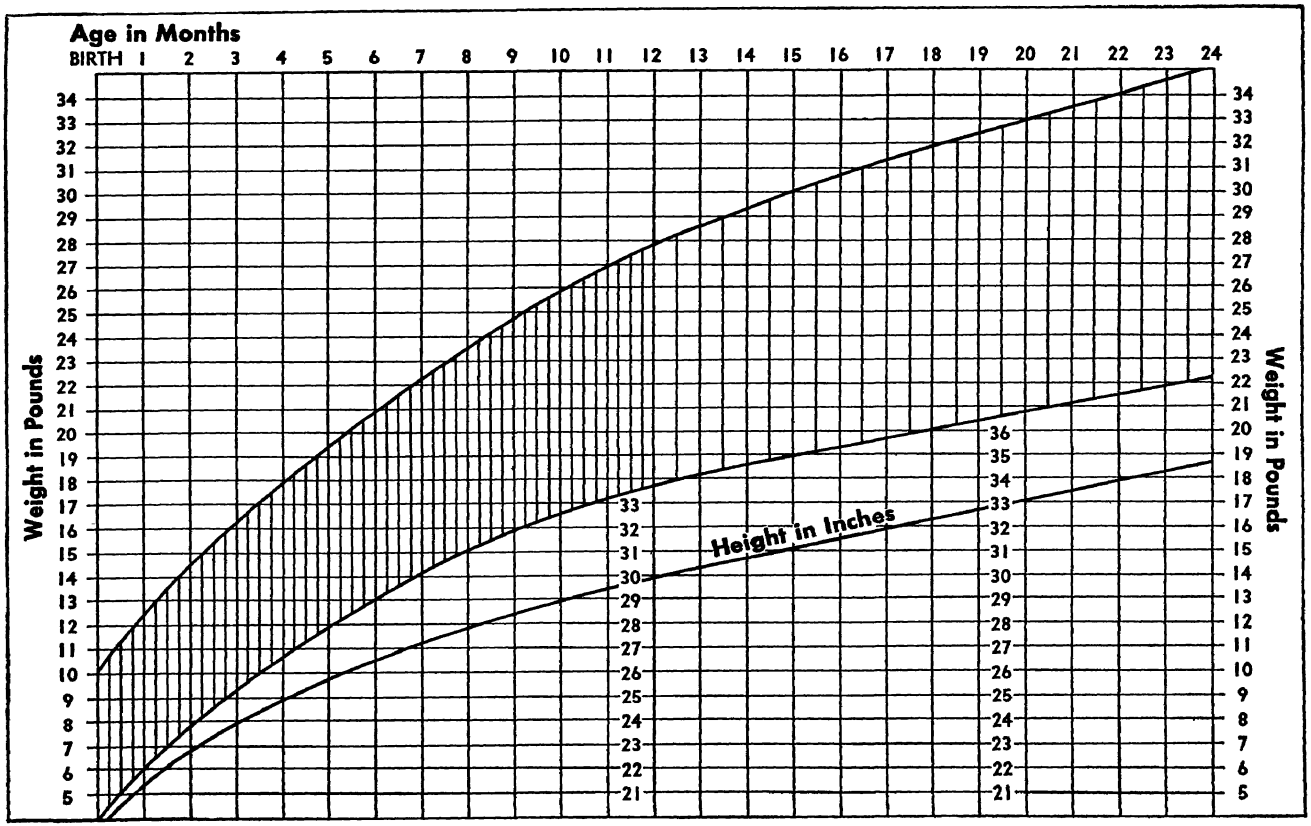

HEIGHT GROWTH RECORD . . . BOYS 1-19
Weight in Pounds
20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140 150 160
Stature in Inches
74 72 70 68 66 64 62 60 58 56 54 52 50 48 46 44 42 40 38 36 34 32 30 28 26
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19

WEIGHT GROWTH RECORD . . . GIRLS 1-19

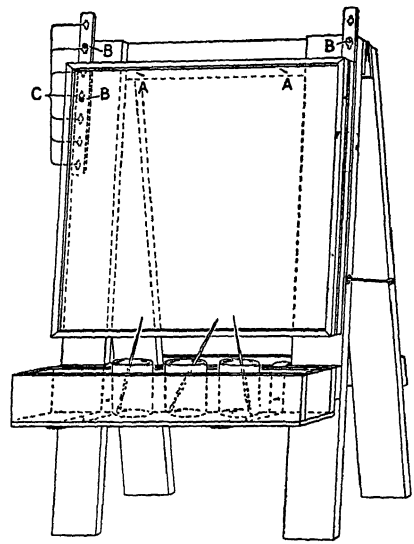


WEIGHT GROWTH RECORD . . . BOYS 1-19




Age in Months
BIRTH 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24
Weight in Pounds
34 33 32 31 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5
Height in Inches
33 32 31 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21
36 35 34 33 32 31 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21
Weight in Pounds
34 33 32 31 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5

FOUR–PIECE SECTIONAL EASEL



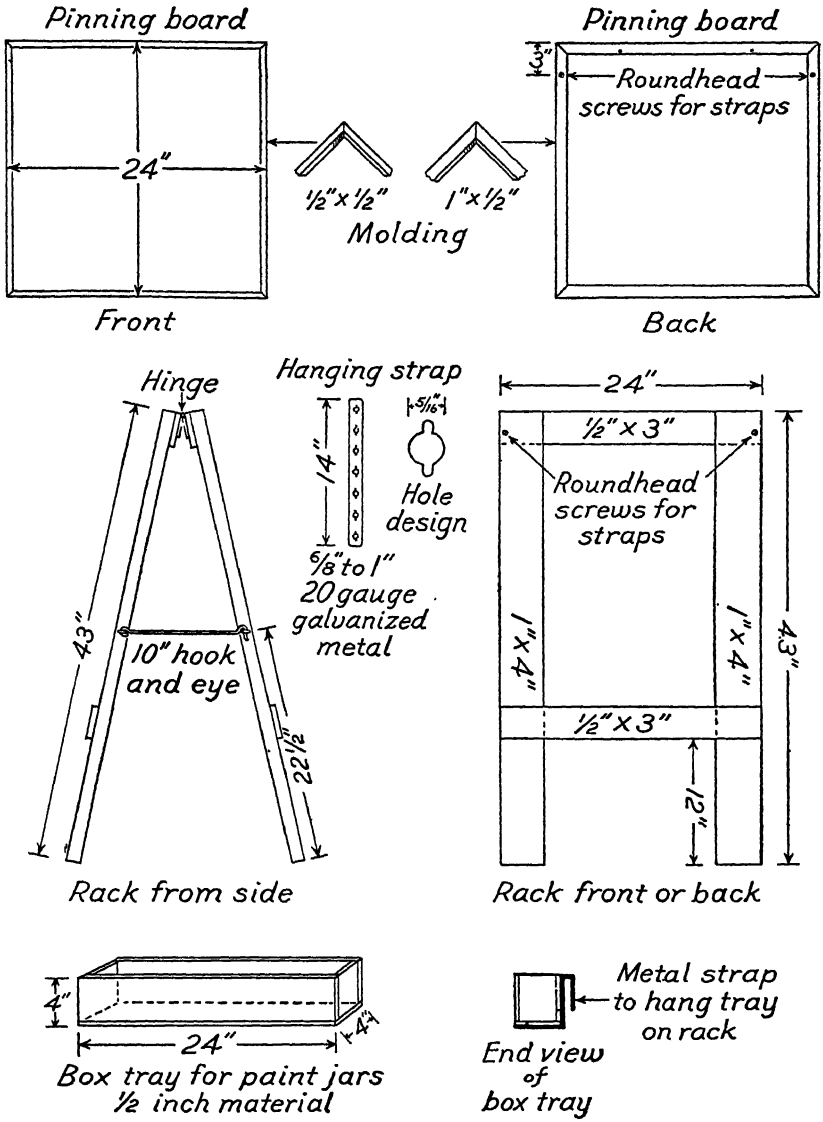
A. Nails for paper
B. Screws for straps
C. Holes for screws in metal straps

These drawings show a sectional easel suitable for school or home use. It has four parts: a pinning board, rack, hanging straps, and box tray.

The pinning board is made by framing a piece of soft composition board with a half-inch rabbeted corner molding. The metal hanging straps with holes punched at intervals can be of iron or heavy galvanized sheet metal. Any tinsmith can make these. The screws on the pinning board and on the easel slip into the holes of the hanging strap which makes the easel adjustable in height. The rack is held in standing position by a hook and eye, and two T hinges at the top. Two metal straps are attached to the box tray for the paint jars so that it can hang over the crossbar on the bottom of the rack, which is placed low enough for the youngest children, and to prevent the handles of the brushes from interfering with the painting surface of the paper. Having the box tray detachable makes it easier to remove the paint and to clean out the box when paints are spilled.

When set up permanently in school, the eye for the hook should be turned with pliers so that it cannot be easily unhooked by the children. Where the easel is to be used steadily by one child, or children of approximately the same age, the screws which hold the hanging straps in place should be turned into the wood as far as possible, making the easel stationary and more secure. Paper can be held in place by thumb tacks, or better, by nails which protrude a half inch on the painting side of the pinning board. These nails should be put through the wood of the frame in the back, not just through the composition board, so that they will be firm and hold the paper securely.

For home use, the pinning board can be hung on the wall by itself and used as an easel or as a pinning board. If used as an easel, a strip of



material 1 by 4 by 6 inches should be attached to the bottom so that it will angle out from the wall as it hangs. The reverse side can have a piece of thin blackboard or masonite nailed to it so that it becomes an easel, blackboard, pinning board, and a finger-painting board all in one.

VIII

Open Letter to the Governor of California

THE FOLLOWING is an open letter from the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association to the Governor of the State of California. It attempts to show how public nursery education should be extended and continued in order to answer the pressing needs of the present and future.

December 16, 1947

Honorable Earl Warren
Sacramento, California
Dear Sir:

The Golden Gate Kindergarten Association wishes to call your attention to the need for continuing the child-care program. We wish at this time to lay before you and the members of the Legislature our position regarding this question.

1. *Seventy years of experience have proved to the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association that a permanent child-care program is needed: therefore, it supports the recommendation of such a program.*

The Golden Gate Kindergarten Association has, since 1878, given day care to young children in kindergartens and in nursery schools supported by trust funds, Community Chest, and parents' fees. At one time as many as thirty-five schools were maintained by the Association in San Francisco. When the kindergartens became part

of the public schools, the organization turned its efforts exclusively to the operation of nursery schools. Seventy years of experience give the association a perspective with which to look upon the present-day problems of child care. Though only one member of the Board of Directors, Miss Virginia Fitch, has served on the board the full seventy years, others have been attending monthly board meetings for three, eight, fifteen, or twenty years, and have reason to believe that day care needs of children will continue to exist after May, 1948.

During the war the Association's schools enrolled children of mothers working in war industries insofar as it was possible to do so, but, for the most part, the schools have always cared for children whose mothers were compelled to work for economic, rather than patriotic reasons. Perhaps no organization in the country is more familiar with the problems of children whose mothers are forced to go to work. The steady, full enrollment in all schools throughout the years enables us to state that there have always been large numbers of children requiring day care outside their homes. While the need for child care has always existed, it has been met by day nurseries, orphanages, and boarding homes. We see no sign that such need may abate under our present social and economic order. Since our organization does not seek to change that order, but does wish to have all children properly cared for at home, or otherwise if need be, we urge the Legislature to face this situation and to look upon it as a permanent social problem, rather than as a temporary emergency created by the war.

Since the existing child-care centers were established as wartime institutions and continued as a postwar emergency measure, they cannot fill the permanent need. Therefore, we ask the Legislature to discontinue supporting the existing child-care centers after May, 1948, and to set up in their place school services more suited to the permanent basic needs. This is in conformity with our recommendation made in April, 1946, to the Joint Legislative Committee on Pre-School Training, and with the recommendation made by that committee to the Legislature in March, 1947, as follows: That child-care centers, as provided under and designed to fill a wartime need should be discontinued; and that a child-care service should be continued under peacetime needs with state aid to meet the requirements of needy parents and their children.

2. *Private schools, day nurseries, orphanages and boarding homes cannot give day care for all the children who need it.*

The State of California should not assume that private agencies can take care of the need which the Interim Committee recognized. Funds from private sources are in no way adequate, nor are city or county funds available in sufficient amounts. Whereas in the past day care of children was looked upon as the exclusive job of private philanthropy, there is no evidence to show that the private program was ever of adequate size for sound social policy. And today, with the increased population, the high birth rate, the housing shortage, the divorce rate, and the need of business, industry, and the professions for the technical services of women, the number of children needing day care is greater than ever before.

We should like to call your attention to the fact that a number of orphanages have been closed in this state during the last decade, that the number of private boarding homes for children has not increased in relation to the population increase, and that the demand for boarding homes exceeds the supply. Children formerly in boarding homes and orphanages were brought back to their own homes when the child-care centers were opened, because mothers could then work and keep their children at home at night. We assume that members of the Legislature will agree with us that it is better for the child, the parent, and for society as a whole to have children live at home even if only for the night, rather than to have them away from home the whole twenty-four hours for months at a time. We do not recommend the establishment of state orphanages, nor the paying of subsidies to orphanages or boarding homes for the care of children whose mothers must work. And since mothers must work, day care centers should be maintained by the state to protect family life and children's health and development. Payment for mothers to stay home with children in the form of aid to dependent children is more costly than maintenance of day care centers. Furthermore, mothers' aid puts a premium upon adult dependency rather than upon self-sufficiency, and is therefore an unwholesome kind of relief.

3. *The public school system is best fitted to give the day care service. The Vallejo unified school district has demonstrated the advantage of having such service a part of the regular school system.*

If it is true that day care centers are a social necessity, then the next question is who is to operate them? We believe that the public school is best fitted for this task. There are no public social service agencies equipped to do the job. The State Department of Social Welfare already delegates to county officials certain of its tasks, because it is not set up to serve each community directly. There are no county and city authorities, as now set up, that are able to give child-care service. The public schools are not only in a position to do so, but they have actually been doing the job for five years. They had the type of organizational structure that made it possible for them to function on short order during the war and to keep going ever since.

There is a reason why the public schools were selected by the Federal Government to fulfill this function. The child who needs day care also needs education. If he is of school age, he cannot go back and forth between school and the child-care center unless the center is practically in the school. Such close affiliation as would be needed between the school and some other state-created social agency would be difficult to develop, it would always be cumbersome, and it would duplicate services and increase costs. The school can, by simply extending the already existing services for the children who need all day care, do effectively and efficiently the whole job of educating and protecting.

Therefore, we urge the Legislature to pass legislation which allows any school district to accept school children for extended day care services within certain limits to be set by the Legislature. Permission should also be granted to the public schools to extend educational and protective services to children under regular school age but over two years of age, within certain limits defined by the Legislature. In other words, we ask that the Legislature remove any legal restrictions which now prevent school districts from developing child-care services.

4. *The Legislature should establish child-care service under the regular elementary school administration, rather than as separately administered centers.*

As organized today, the child-care center is an unwanted appendage to the public school. It should be set up as an integral part of public education. The organizational change we propose would put the day care center's activities on a par with the regular school activities and would insure a higher level of maintenance and operation than is possible so long as the schools look upon the child-care centers as temporary and intruding. Teachers for before and after school care should have the same qualifications and pay as regular school teachers. Heat, light and water are now not simply charged to general overhead, but are sometimes divided, for bookkeeping purposes, into before, during, and after, school use. Principals are now in no way responsible for the child care program that is conducted in their school buildings. The proposed organization would draw full support from the school's administrators, its Board of Education, and from the community, resulting in better supervision by trained personnel, and the development of minimum standards for operation. Such minimum standards have been lacking in the child-care program since its beginning, and personnel standards have not been of as high a level as those of elementary schools.

The Vallejo Unified School District is the only one in the state which has integrated the child-care program with the regular elementary school program to the limited extent that is permitted by law. An examination of the Vallejo structure shows that savings of overhead expense can be achieved, that teachers are paid on the same basis as the regular school teachers, and services from all school departments are available as needed, principals are interested and responsible, and administrative friction does not exist. The Vallejo schools are demonstrating what financial and educational advantages can come from making the child-care program a genuine part of the school system. The high standards maintained in the Vallejo child-care centers are well known, and their high level is no doubt due to the esteem in which the school's officials and administrators hold their child-care program.

In order to make child care a part of the regular elementary school services the Legislature would have to enact laws which would permit any school districts to provide extended day care

services and to establish nursery schools for children under school age. Such legislation should be broadly permissive and allow the use of local funds for these purposes where school boards can make them available. However, the state must carry the main burden of the expense for child-care services, for parents will not be able to pay high fees. We recommend that the state pay to the school district *per diem* amounts per child in attendance on a sliding scale based on the size of the program. The *per diem* amount must be sufficient to pay the entire costs for operating units on a minimum basis. The use of local funds should not be excluded if they are available to extend services or to raise standards.

5. *The Legislature must all decide which children are eligible to attend child-care centers and for whom costs of care will be paid by the State to local school districts.*

Local districts might be allowed to take other children, provided the costs for their care are not a burden to the state. We recommend that the state pay costs only for children whose mothers are their sole support: children whose mothers are dead; or have deserted; who are in mental hospitals, or who otherwise require hospitalization for periods over six weeks; and for any other categories of children that the Legislature wants to include in the program. These eligibility restrictions are recommended because the most needy cases fall within these limits and no fair-minded citizen can object to having tax money spent for the care of children in such circumstances. Such eligibility requirements would be easy to administer and would require no social worker investigation. A notarized affidavit of family status would be sufficient requirement to prevent misrepresentation on any significant scale. No restrictions of admission based on family income would have to be stipulated because the number of women who are the sole support of their children and who are also making high salaries is negligible, and in these cases the children are likely to be sent to boarding homes or orphanages if day care services are not available. If the purpose of the center is to promote home life, the widowed mother's home should be sustained, whether she is living at a starvation level or at a good standard of living. Furthermore, the woman who makes much money usually prefers a housekeeper to child care. The same argument applies to the hospitalized wealthy mother. Rarely

would a well-to-do father prefer nursery school to a housekeeper when the mother is incapacitated by long illness. While certain inappropriate cases will be eligible if no income restrictions are laid down, this is not an important consideration for they would be few and far between.

Sole support of the child by the mother should be interpreted to mean the divorced, separated, or widowed working mother, and no restrictions should be made regarding her eligibility. While grandparents and ex-husbands often do help working mothers financially, the support is usually irregular, can never be ascertained accurately and reliably, and is rarely enough to sustain a housekeeper in the mother's absence. Therefore, the orphanage or a boarding home becomes the child's fate unless there is a child-care program. If a child's eligibility makes it possible for him to live with his remaining parent, when he has already lost one, then the program, far from destroying home life, is actually helping to maintain it.

While this organization would like to see other eligibility classifications for a state-supported child-care program, it realizes that funds are limited, and that the program must take care of the neediest cases first. But the whole idea of child care certainly should not be abandoned because all deserving families would not be served. Society will pay heavily in increased children's sickness, both epidemic and chronic; in increased maladjustment and delinquency of school-age children; in business and industrial loss resulting from high turnover of personnel, and above all, in a widespread feeling of remorse and defeat on the part of legislators and citizens unless this problem is solved now upon a foundation of a sound social policy.

The Golden Gate Kindergarten Association feels strongly that a further temporizing attitude on the part of the legislators would be a waste of tax money and represent a poor social policy. The question of public child care should now be faced as a permanent problem, and laws should be enacted at this session which establish sound policy now and bring immediate relief to certain children and their mothers. For that reason we urge the Legislature to take a definite first step toward a permanent program, wisely thought out, cautiously initiated, and adequately financed.

6. *The Legislature should see to it that costs are reduced and that services are increased under a reorganized child-care service program to replace the present child-care center plan.*

To provide properly for children, more schools should offer child-care service because long travel to distant centers is undesirable. For the children between the ages of seven and twelve, any school could readily have service for as few as five or six children. One teacher would suffice. The problem of lunch for a small group would best be solved by giving the children access to the school cafeteria, and the state child-care funds could be drawn on for a per capita amount per meal. Where such cafeteria service is not available, the children could bring lunches from home and receive supervision during the lunch period. One of the excess costs of the present program is that of preparing food for small enrollments.

Again, we wish to point out that while we would like to see all children have hot lunches at school, the state's inability to pay the costs of hot lunches for all children enrolled in child-care centers should not cause the Legislature to do nothing. Where enrollment would justify costs, a hot lunch should of course be a standard feature of child-care service. School districts could determine this in the light of enrollment, the amount of state subsidy, of local subsidy, if any, and the amount of income from parents' fees.

The younger child, however, must be protected by a program of physical care more scrupulously planned and executed than that for the older child. For him, a hot lunch is minimum essential. As presently organized, all children are fed from one kitchen in a school, so that extended day care services are offered only where kitchen facilities are available. We believe these services should also be offered where needed to children over seven without hot lunch. Today many children of that age are looking out for themselves before and after school and during lunch hour, and they already eat home-prepared lunches. We feel that supervision should be given them. There is scarcely a school in any city that would not have a limited child-care service if offered on this basis. Size of enrollment need be no problem under such a reorganized plan.

For the nursery school, a greatly reduced enrollment would increase per capita costs, for a school for fewer than fifty to sixty children is expensive because while only one cook and one housekeeper and one janitor are needed for the fifty to sixty children,

they are also needed for as few as thirty children. The cost of keeping up the building is the same for both enrollment figures, and per capita teaching costs are considerably less for fifty to sixty children as compared to thirty children. The problem then arises: how can the schools be maintained where the desirable admission restrictions hold down enrollment, if low enrollment means excessive per capita cost? It is not feasible to have only a few large and widely scattered nursery schools. Little children cannot stand long streetcar and bus rides, nor can their mothers. The schools must be easily accessible to homes to prevent fatigue, illness, low attendance, high turnover, and low morale.

This organization believes that enrollment in the child-care nursery school should not be restricted to those children who are receiving all-day care. We think that the four- and five-year-old children enrolled for regular kindergarten and the children of working mothers should be in the same classrooms. The regular children would come at nine o'clock, go home at noon; the other children would remain for the rest of the day. Such a combination would permit fuller use of facilities, cut costs, and above all, make for a healthier social mixture in the classroom. The present child-care nursery school program segregates the children for the entire day, whereas in the school-age program the regular children and the child-care children use the same classrooms. Such a combination is just as feasible for four- and five-year-olds as it is for eight- and ten-year-olds. Costs could be further reduced by allowing regular children to stay for lunch for a fee.

The feasibility of such a combination program of several sessions in one nursery school classroom is being demonstrated at the three schools now operated by the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association. Children come from 9:30 to 11:30, or from 9:00 to 1:00, or from 9:00 to 4:00, or from 7:00 to 6:00. Such flexibility of sessions means that each child stays only as long as is good or necessary for him. A school with this feature is a great boon to the child from a broken home for he mingles with children from good homes instead of with children from homes which are also upset. He has quieter early morning and late afternoon hours in school because of the low attendance at those times. Considerable psychological hazard exists in grouping children who all come from broken homes. The proposed reorganization of child-care services would enable

the kindergartens and nursery schools to make a felicitous union, something which is impossible under the present setup.

The combination of two- and three-year-old children with other school children cannot be worked out unless our public schools develop nursery schools. One serious shortcoming of the existing centers is the mixing of age groups, as in day nurseries, instead of their segregation, as in true nursery schools. Therefore, we urge the Legislature to pass legislation allowing school districts to establish nursery schools entirely by the use of local funds. We believe there is great need to provide some educational service to children under kindergarten age. Such permissive legislation would allow school districts to enroll children in classes in child-care nursery schools where their presence is psychologically desirable and economically needed. Fees could be set at any amounts up to full costs, the schools could be used as laboratories for high school students and for parents to study child behavior. Great benefit could come to the community from the development of such an educational program. An analysis of the costs in the Golden Gate Nursery Schools shows that for the 9:30 to 11:30 and the 9:00 to 1:00 sessions, children can be enrolled for fees that are in excess of actual costs, thus reducing the average per capita cost, and the actual cost for those enrolled in the 7:00 to 6:00 session. Herein lies a partial answer to the question of how to keep down the costs of the public child-care nursery school program.

School districts need have no fear that such permissive legislation would create too much demand for nursery education on the part of parents. Pressure groups would soon realize that buildings and teachers cannot be pulled out of thin air. Passage of permissive legislation would, however, give opportunity for wise experimenting which is greatly needed at this time to guide the legislators in making further provisions for education and for child care.

In summary, may we repeat: 1. The need for child-care service has always existed. 2. Private, city, or county funds are not adequate to provide for all children needing care. 3. The Legislature should appropriate funds for child-care service in public schools. 4. The Legislature should establish child-care service under the regular elementary school administration rather than as independently operated centers in the school. 5. The Legislature should make eligibility restrictions for children receiving child-care service.

6. Children who receive child-care service should not be segregated from the regular school children. 7. Permissive legislation should be passed which would allow school districts to operate nursery schools for parent educational purposes as well as for giving child care. In closing, let us thank you for all your previous efforts on behalf of the child-care program of California, and urge you to include in the call for a special session of the Legislature the child-care program and recommend passage of bills which establish sound permanent policy. Copies of this letter are being sent to all members of the Legislature and to many citizens.

Respectfully submitted,

GOLDEN GATE KINDERGARTEN ASSOCIATION

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